

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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## Educational News and Editorial Comment

### INDOCTRINATION BY DEFAULT AND INDIRECTION

Recent discussion in the educational world of the issues of indoctrination should assure interest in portions of the content of *A Manual for Instructors in Civilian Conservation Corps Camps*, a bulletin indicated as having been prepared by the Vocational Division of the United States Office of Education. Credit for preparation of the manuscript is given to M. Reed Bass, assistant director of the William Hood Dunwoody Industrial Institute at Minneapolis, who has a long record of helpful activity in behalf of vocational education. In the first chapter is a definition of teaching which might be regarded as vicious if it were not obviously naïve. "Teaching," according to this definition, "is the process of controlling, directing, or managing the thinking of the student so that he will be able to do and to understand the thing which you plan to teach him."

Even more germane to the question of indoctrination in education than this definition of teaching is the advice on "How to avoid dangerous issues."

Discussion can reach a point where it may run into dangerous issues. This is particularly true in foreman training classes and with experienced groups. An instructor is not expected to sit as a judge and give decisions concerning arguments and policies. Should it be indicated that dangerous topics are being

brought up for discussion in the class, the instructor should analyze the situation, and, if it is considered unwise to deal with any given topic, lead the discussion away from that topic. One safe way is, of course, to stay away from dangerous topics. Recognize them early in the discussion, and switch the subject to something of greater interest to the group if possible.

Another way is to promise to bring the dangerous issue up at some future time. This will make it possible for the instructor to secure additional information before discussing it, and it also sets up the possibility of the topic being forgotten. A story to switch the interests of the class is a clever device for changing the topic. Frankness and honesty will help, and if the case warrants it, the instructor should tell the class that the dangerous issue is not a part of the lesson, and should refuse to discuss it.

Unquestionably some teachers in American schools have at times resorted to default and indirection in facing dangerous issues in their classrooms, but it may be doubted whether they have ever before been advised to do so in any official manual or forthright treatise on teaching. Notwithstanding the excellent counsel of most of the bulletin on matters pertaining more strictly to vocational training, one's confidence in the conduct of the affairs of the Civilian Conservation Corps is not increased by learning that instructors in the camps are given such advice. Persons disposed to question the competence of the military to administer an educational program would prefer that this publication had borne the imprint of the War Department, which is in control of the camps of the corps, rather than that of the Office of Education.

We hasten to venture the opinion that the advice in the *Manual* is not in keeping with the point of view of the present head of the Office of Education, John W. Studebaker. One who, as city superintendent of schools, directed the adult forums in Des Moines which have attracted the attention of the whole country in recent years would hardly advise teachers to avoid dangerous issues. Fortunately, there is at hand fresher evidence of Commissioner Studebaker's point of view, in an address on "Liberalism and Adult Civic Education" published in a recent issue of *School and Society*. Following are illustrative excerpts, which seem the direct antithesis of the advice quoted from the *Manual*.

Liberalism is a temper of mind, a way of thinking. It shuns dogmatism. It urges unfettered, absolutely free investigation of every problem. Liberalism is

not afraid to face the facts and to follow where they lead. It welcomes and stimulates criticism.

*The very flower of liberalism is the scientific approach.* No one need argue the merits of liberalism. We liberals point to the profound results of the scientific attitude of mind in the conquest of the natural world.

Today liberalism demands that men and women apply the scientific attitude to the learning process on matters of social and economic import. *Liberalism asks for freedom of inquiry in the belief that the truth about sociological problems cannot be discovered in any other way. . . .*

Mind you, I am not attempting to say here that the schools should interpret their neutrality as a hands-off policy. Rather, I am contending that freedom of inquiry should be defended against all its opponents as the essential of liberal education. I do not want to see the educational process used as a bulwark to protect and perpetuate any particular aspects of the existing system regardless of their merits, any more than I want to see education used as an instrument to indoctrinate learners with the radical proposals of some new system.

Of course, the educational process will and should deeply affect the future decisions and choices of citizens in a democracy. It must, therefore, often concern itself with highly controversial questions. There need be no side-stepping, no hushing-up of discussion about such questions. In fact, ultimately, there cannot be. The most tyrannical governments of the past have not found it possible permanently to suppress the truth and the desires of the people. I predict that the modern dictatorships will some day crash under the revolutionary impact of the masses of people who are being goaded to revolt by suppression and fed on the falsehoods of propaganda, the grown-up brother of indoctrination.

But we want no group of pedagogic reformers on the one hand or self-appointed academic censors on the other, manipulating the learning process so that the learners may more easily be fitted as cogs into a machine conceived in master minds.

The outsider is sometimes put to it to explain such manifest disagreements in principle between the head of a governmental office and his subordinates. Perhaps the explanation lies in the recency of the joining of the Vocational Division with the Office of Education or in the fact that the person credited with authorship is not a member of that division.

#### JOHN LOCKE ON THE STUDY OF LATIN

From a first edition of *Some Thoughts concerning Education* by John Locke, published in London in 1693 by A. and J. Churchill at the Black Swan in Paternoster-row, we quote Locke's appraisal of

Latin as a subject of study and of the methods of teaching it. The endeavor in making quotation has been to preserve the quaintness of form and expression of the original.

§. 156. *Latin*, I look upon as absolutely necessary to a Gentleman, and indeed, Custom, which prevails over every thing, has made it so much a Part of Education, that even those Children are whipp'd to it, and made spend many Hours of their precious time uneasily in *Latin*, who, after they are once gone from School, are never to have more to do with it as long as they live. Can there be any thing more ridiculous, than that a Father should waste his own Money, and his Son's time, in setting him to learn the *Roman Language*, when at the same time he designs him for a Trade, wherein he having no use of *Latin*, fails not to forget that little, which he brought from School, and which 'tis Ten to One he abhors, for the ill usage it procur'd him? Could it be believ'd, unless we had every where amongst us Examples of it, that a Child should be forced to learn the Rudiments of a Language, which he is never to use in the course of Life, he is designed to, and neglect all the while the writing a good Hand, and casting Account, which are of great Advantage in all Conditions of Life, and to most Trades indispensibly necessary? But though these Qualifications, requisite to Trade and Commerce, and the Business of the World, are seldom or never to be had at Grammar Schools, yet thither, not only Gentlemen send their younger Sons, intended for Trades; but even Tradefmen and Farmers fail not to send their Children, though they have neither Intention nor Ability to make them Scholars. If you ask them why they do this, they think it as strange a Question, as if you should ask them, why they go to Church. Custom serves for Reason, and has, to those who take it for Reason, so consecrated this Method, that it is almost Religiously observed by them, and they stick to it, as if their Children had scarce an Orthodox Education unless they learn'd *Lily's Grammar*.

§. 157. But how necessary soever *Latin* be to some, and is thought to be to others, to whom it is of no manner of Use or Service; yet the ordinary way of learning it in a Grammar School is that, which having had thoughts about, I cannot be forward to incourage. The Reasons against it are so evident, and cogent, that they have prevailed with some intelligent Persons, to quit the ordinary Road, not without success, though the Method made use of, was not exactly that which I imagine the easiest, and in short is this: To trouble the Child with no *Grammar* at all, but to have *Latin*, as *English* has been, without the perplexity of Rules talked into him; for if you will consider it, *Latin* is no more unknown to a Child, when he comes into the World, than *English*: And yet he learns *English* without Master, Rule, or Grammar; and so might he *Latin* too, as *Tully* did, if he had some-body always to talk to him in this Language. And when we so often see a *French-Woman* teach a young Girl to speak and read *French* perfectly in a Year or Two, without any Rule of Grammar, or any thing else but prattling to her, I cannot but wonder, how Gentlemen have over-seen this way for their Sons, and thought them more dull or incapable than their Daughters.



Omitting consideration of the portions of the quotation touching on the methods of teaching Latin and referring only to those concerned with the value of the subject, one notes that the point of view expressed by this severe critic of education in his day and country has much in common with opinions held by many persons today. It has much in common also with the point of view of Benjamin Franklin, whose proposals for curriculum reform were so forward looking as to be deserving of consideration even at the present time. Scholars in the field have indicated the influence of Locke on Franklin.<sup>1</sup> Protest against Latin as a school subject appears to be an old story told and retold by famous critics of the schools.

#### CONTINUED DISTRESS OF HIGH SCHOOLS IN SOUTHERN ILLINOIS

One of the areas known to have been hit hardest in its educational affairs by the ravages of the depression is southern Illinois. During the depths of the recession elementary and secondary schools of this region were often mentioned as suffering greatly from shrinkage or disappearance of financial resources. Lest friends of the schools, aware that acuteness of the situation has been relieved in many quarters, will come to believe that there is no longer cause for great concern over school affairs in the distressed areas, we quote from the report of a recent inquiry into the fiscal affairs in the high schools in the counties of southern Illinois. The inquiry was made by S. B. Sullivan, principal of the Community High School at West Frankfort, and the findings are reported in the *Illinois Teacher* under the title "Financial Conditions in the High Schools of Southern Illinois."

This summary of financial conditions in the high schools of southern Illinois is based on a questionnaire that was sent out to the high-school principals in the twenty-one southernmost counties of the state. Fifty questionnaires were sent out, and at this writing replies have been received from forty-two of them. The first few questions were designed to determine the effect of the economic conditions on the personnel of the teaching forces in southern Illinois high schools.

#### EFFECT ON TEACHING FORCE

These 42 schools have a total enrolment of 13,870 students and a total teaching force of 513 teachers. The student-teacher ratios of the individual schools vary from a minimum of 16 to 1 to a maximum of 38 to 1. The teacher

<sup>1</sup>See Thomas Woody, *Educational Views of Benjamin Franklin*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1931.

turnover for the 42 schools for the summer of 1935 totaled 98, or 19 per cent of the total teaching force. The significance of this will be apparent when it is remembered that the average teacher turnover for the state in 1934 was less than 14 per cent. Two out of every three vacancies were created by teachers moving to positions with increased salaries. One-sixth of the teachers who moved went into new positions less desirable from the professional standpoint and with no increase in salaries but with cash salaries guaranteed. The remaining one-sixth of the changes were due to the ordinary causes—marriages, failure, retirement, etc. The loss of teachers in the various schools varied from none to 70 per cent. The greatest turnover took place in Franklin County where six four-year high schools are maintained.

In the fall of 1934 the Board of Review in Franklin County cut the assessed valuation of property  $12\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. They accompanied this cut with the statement, "The schools seem to be in excellent condition now with the aid of the gas tax which is coming in, and no hardships will be suffered." When the new assessments came out, it was found that the cut actually amounted to 15 per cent. With reduced revenues confronting them, some of the high-school boards of education could do nothing but slash the already low salaries. In Benton and Christopher salaries were slashed an additional 25 per cent. In Sesser, Valier, West Frankfort, and Zeigler the salary scales remained the same with no guaranty that a full nine-months school would be taught.

#### TURNOVER IN TEACHING FORCE

Five of the high-school teachers at Benton went to other positions at higher salaries. None of these teachers was replaced so that Benton's staff of 26 teachers was reduced to 21 for an enrolment of 739 students. In 1930 Benton had 38 teachers for an enrolment of 778. In Christopher 8 of the 13 teachers left for positions guaranteeing higher salaries. Seven of the 8 were replaced so that Christopher now has a staff of 12 teachers for an enrolment of 459 students. In Zeigler 7 of the 10 teachers left. Five of these went to guaranteed higher salaries. All 7 were replaced however but with no guaranty of salaries. In West Frankfort 2 of the 3 teachers who resigned went to positions of higher salaries. Three of Valier's 5 teachers resigned, 2 of them to take positions with guaranteed higher salaries. For the whole of Franklin County then there was a total turnover of 29 teachers in 88 teaching positions. This is 33 per cent, which I submit as a record turnover for any county. These illustrations should be sufficient to prove very definitely that salary levels in southern Illinois are not such as to secure and maintain highly qualified teachers.

The situation will be all the more appreciated when the difficulty of hiring new teachers is considered. For example the principal at Valier reports that he cannot hope to hold his teachers for a period of more than one year. Three teachers were hired for an English position and three others for a commercial position before the principal was able to find a teacher who would stick with the job. One of these resignations took place after school started. The same

condition arose in Johnston City where at the end of two weeks of school the principal was still searching for a commercial teacher. Johnston City lost a total of five teachers. All left positions to find cash salaries. Harrisburg lost a total of five teachers, all of whom went to positions of higher salaries. No school can be better than its teachers and where any community suffers the high teacher turnover that is taking place in many of the southern Illinois communities, it is utterly out of the question to maintain a high standard of educational efficiency.

#### SALARIES

What are the conditions that are driving these teachers out of southern Illinois? While living expenses have been going up and schools throughout the state have been raising salaries, the majority of the salary scales in southern Illinois have remained the same. In a few instances the salaries went up, varying in amount from 5 to 15 per cent. In many cases these raises were granted to cover the discounts suffered by the teachers in getting their orders cashed. In some schools however salaries were actually reduced as was cited in the cases of Benton and Christopher. The greatest reduction took place at Golconda where salaries were slashed  $33\frac{1}{3}$  per cent. Fourteen, or exactly one-third, of the forty-two schools reported that their teachers do not have all their salaries paid up to date. They hold orders varying from four months to five years old. Four schools reported teachers carrying orders four years old. Eight of the forty-two schools reported that their teachers are not assured of their salaries for the present school year. With such conditions existing, southern Illinois schools may expect to retain their teachers only so long as the teachers cannot find positions elsewhere. . . .

#### WHAT OF THE FUTURE?

The last question asked of southern Illinois principals was, "Could your school get along all right if the revenue should level off and remain the same in the future as at present?" In answer to this question, 26 principals answered emphatically "No."

Many of the principals based this answer on the fact that there is absolutely no revenue available for maintaining the physical equipment of the plant or for paying off indebtedness already incurred. Others declared that the present revenue is entirely inadequate for the most necessary of current expenses. One principal reported that in order to give the students of his community even the minimum essentials the revenue will have to double. Six principals answered the question by stating that it is doubtful whether they can continue on the present revenue, pointing out that it will depend on what happens to the enrolment in ensuing years and whether or not they reinstate courses already dropped.

Nine of the forty-two principals stated that they can continue to get along at the present rate of revenue. One principal whose school is considered to be in good financial condition answered that at the present rate of revenue they cannot hope to maintain their school for more than two or three years.

In many instances high-school districts are running short from \$4,000 to \$5,000 annually in their current expenses alone. This of course makes it utterly impossible to spend money for plant or equipment maintenance. All building programs of course have been entirely suspended. In West Frankfort the enrolment is so heavy that it is impossible to house all of the students at one time. The school is forced to operate on a staggered schedule with two hundred or more students free every period in the day. This of course is not conducive to good school conditions.

The conclusions of the inquiry, as Sullivan summarizes them, "stand out emphatically." They are: that the general property tax as a source of school revenue is "utterly inadequate"; that the pupils of the high schools affected "are sure to suffer irreparable losses if these conditions are allowed to continue"; that a state school fund to include high schools is "essential to the equalization of educational opportunities"; and that, unless some source of revenue is found in the immediate future, many of the high schools of the region will be forced to close their doors.

#### PROGRAMS OF STUDIES FOR SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS IN SOUTH DAKOTA

Another state in which steps have been taken to improve programs of studies in small high schools is South Dakota. During the late summer J. F. Hines, state superintendent of public instruction, published Bulletin Number 16, *Approved Programs of Studies for the Three, Four, and Five Teacher Secondary Schools of South Dakota, Including the Revised Standards of Accrediting*. A note of acknowledgments credits R. W. Kraushaar, state supervisor of secondary education, and C. R. Wiseman, professor of education at South Dakota State College of Agriculture and Mechanic Arts, at Brookings, with direction of the work of committees which prepared the recommended programs.

#### CHILD LABOR SINCE THE VOIDING OF THE CODES

A recent issue of the *American Child*, organ of the National Child Labor Committee, in an article on "Child Labor since the NRA Decision," considers the extent and seriousness of relapse in the prevention of employment of children following the decision by the Supreme Court in May. We quote the brief article in full.

When the Supreme Court rendered its decision voiding the NRA codes on May 27, the bars against child labor went down. In the past the results of removing a federal ban on child labor have been far reaching and regrettable. In the case of the 1918 decision, for example, which declared the first Federal Child Labor Law unconstitutional, the immediate result was a longer working day for children and more children employed.

Those most closely concerned with the welfare of child workers were quick to warn of the danger involved. For instance, William Green, president of the American Federation of Labor, stated:

"We now revert to the same status which made child labor and the existence of the sweatshop possible. . . . Child labor and the sweatshop are abolished only where they are forbidden by law. Employers of labor who employed children and who maintained sweatshops before the National Industrial Recovery Act became effective will do so now when free from legislative restraint."

Already the evidence of a breakdown in child-labor standards is beginning to come in. In June the Michigan Department of Labor received many reports that minor children were working in small restaurants, laundries, factories, and back-alley shops.

Work permits issued in New York City after the NRA codes ceased to operate include, among fourteen-year-old children, jobs as general helpers and errand boys in the metal crafts, offices, and butcher shops; among fifteen-year-olds, sewing-machine operation, clerical work, and one instance of employment at a refreshment stand. The number of first regular employment certificates issued at the Brooklyn (New York) Boys' Continuation School in June, 1935, when fourteen- and fifteen-year-old children were once again eligible for them, numbered 457 as compared with 229 in June, 1934, an increase of almost exactly 100 per cent.

The National Child Labor Committee investigated reports that Paterson, New Jersey, silk mills were employing children fourteen years of age at four to seven dollars a week. In four of the five mills visited, children thirteen, fourteen, and fifteen years of age were found working. Three child workers not over twelve years of age were seen, also a little girl who claimed to be twelve but appeared younger, and a boy who looked about ten. In some cases the younger children were sent scurrying down the fire escapes when the visitors appeared.

The director of the Women's and Children's Division of the Indiana Industrial Board stated in August: "Since the NRA has been declared unconstitutional, there has been a noticeable increase in the number of age certificates and according to the accident reports an increase in the number of minors employed."

For every case of child exploitation that comes to light, there are doubtless many others which are never reported. But is there a specific number of exploited children—100,000 or 1,000,000—which must be reached before the American public is roused? That children are working at ages and under conditions which were not tolerated during the two-year period of federal control

under the codes is clear. And where such cases are now the exception, they may at any time become the rule. The important question is, not how many children have returned to work, but how many can be saved from the necessity of child labor. This can best be done by securing ratification of the Child-Labor Amendment by twelve more states—before changing conditions send a flood of children into the labor market.

Another item in the same issue transmits a pointed recommendation concerning the relation of child labor and relief.

At a meeting held by the National Child Labor Committee in connection with the National Conference of Social Work last June, Courtenay Dinwiddie [general secretary of the National Child Labor Committee] called upon agencies to assist in maintaining the child-labor standards formerly established through the NRA codes.

Pointing out that the extent to which child labor returns as a result of the Schechter decision will be determined in part by the attitude of relief agencies towards the employment of children, Mr. Dinwiddie stated: "I would like to see every public and private relief-giving agency in this country adopt a ruling that children under sixteen years in families receiving relief must not leave school for work."

Mr. Dinwiddie recalled that, when the codes were adopted, there were immediate requests for exemption from the child-labor provisions which set a sixteen-year age minimum for full-time work, on the ground that it would mean hardship in cases where children had been contributing to the family income. The NRA refused to allow exceptions, pointing out that the intention of the administration in prohibiting child labor was to raise adults' standards and release children for more education and that every exemption would help break down that purpose. At the same time, the Federal Relief Administration requested state relief organizations to work out co-operative arrangements with the schools whereby such cases would be reported to them and suggested that, where the earnings of a minor child were found essential in maintaining a decent standard of living, assistance be granted in the form of work relief for some unemployed adult member of the family or through a direct relief grant.

Mr. Dinwiddie urged that this policy be continued, even though the NRA provisions are no longer mandatory.

Besides the responsibilities of co-operation mentioned in this statement, the schools now have laid on them the obligation of renewed vigilance for the enforcement of such laws of compulsory education and prevention of child labor as were operative before the enactment of the NRA codes.

"BUILDING AMERICA," VOLUME I, NUMBER 1

This section of the *May School Review*, under the caption "Pictorialized Content for the Social Studies," carried announcement of publication by the Society of Curriculum Study on a non-profit-making basis of a new periodical, *Building America*; described a special preliminary edition on "Housing" that was issued to demonstrate the character of the materials to be presented; and listed the subjects to be treated in the numbers projected for the first year. The first regular number has appeared. Its subject is "Food." It carries out the promise of devoting about three-fourths of the page space to pictorial materials, such as photographs, charts, pictures, and maps. The issue centers in the main problem: How can the American people be fed? It pictures areas of fertile land, how farmers and machines raise the nation's food supply, the application of science in agriculture, canning factories and packing plants, mills and bakeries that supply the nation's bread, and dairies that furnish America's supply of milk. It pictures also the means of transportation and distribution of food and contrasts the food of families living in coal-mine huts with that of the middle-class home. Sections are included on the problem of prices of food and the manner in which the federal government helps consumers to safeguard their food supply.

Successive issues for the year will deal with "Men and Machines," "Transportation," "Health," "Communication," "Power," "Recreation," and "Youth Faces the World."

The yearly subscription for the eight issues has already been reported here as \$1.50. Special rates are offered for a number of subscriptions or for a number of single copies. The editorial offices of *Building America* are located at 425 West 123d Street, New York City.

HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

*An exchange of principals.*—An interesting and novel exchange of principalships is being carried on by E. Scott Holbeck, of Passaic, New Jersey, and George Hetzel, of Pasadena, California. Although the state laws do not encourage such a scheme, concessions were



made by both states to allow the experiment to take place. Local boards of education approved of the plan because it was hoped that such an exchange would carry the best practices from one city to the other. Ideas can be exchanged and evaluated in terms of the present organization. Holbeck's permanent position is that of principal of the Woodrow Wilson Intermediate Grade School, Passaic, New Jersey, and Hetzel's is that of directing the John Marshall Junior High School, Pasadena, California. The present exchange is believed to be the first of its kind on record. Exchanges of teachers are no novelty, and much of value is claimed for them. We shall await with interest the verdict of the parties to this new type of exchange, that is, the conclusions of the principals themselves and of the school systems represented.

*Developing critical appreciation of radio.*—Miss Mary E. Wallace, teacher of English in the Union High School at Whittier, California, has reported to the *School Review* her experience in developing in her classes ability in selecting and appreciating radio programs, particularly programs of an informative and cultural character. In a study of use of radio by 148 pupils in Grade IX, she found that all but six had at least one radio—some, two or three—in their homes. The majority of the pupils were not consulting radio programs nor watching for coming radio events of distinction, despite the fact that the pupils listened to the radio on an average of two hours a day. "Most of the pupils had no conception of the existence of special weekly features, being contented simply to have the radio 'on.' " Miss Wallace suggested to her classes the possibility of selectivity in radio programs similar to their study of, and appreciation for, better motion pictures, "the aim being to conduct a conscious search for better programs, to improve the use of leisure time, and to stimulate increased interest through an exchange of opinion about better programs."

Following is Miss Wallace's description of her experience during initial efforts.

The problem of selling the idea to the pupils was not a small one. I began with the *Los Angeles Times* "Vice-Consul" interviews which are presented over Station KMTR at seven o'clock, usually on Tuesdays and Thursdays. I suggested that as many as possible listen to the interview with Dr. Felix B. Janov-

sky, consul of the Czechoslovakian Republic, who was to give his listeners a word picture of his country's position in international affairs. I told my classes that I would be unable to listen in and wanted to know just how much I had missed. At first the results were discouraging. One pupil reported she couldn't understand the speaker very well; another, that she did not find the talk interesting. However, from a member of my fifth-period class I was happy to have an excellent report. The consul had given information concerning the war rumors that were prevalent in Europe and his own country's attitude toward war; descriptions of its government, industries, and agriculture; of their gypsies and musicians; of the position of women; of marriage and divorce laws; of the health resorts for which that country is noted; of the gold standard; and the monetary values. The interview ended with interesting comments on Prague, the capital. Thus in fifteen minutes a fund of interesting information about this country, coming direct from one of its leaders, had been given.

We followed this up with special reports about Czechoslovakia from magazines, newspapers, and books. One of the pupils wrote a letter to the consul at his office in Los Angeles asking for further information. His reply, together with the written reports, was put in a booklet of radio broadcasts. Later similar projects in radio appreciation were worked out.

After hearing the report given by the Czechoslovakian consul, the pupils decided they had missed something, and later interviews were listened to with more interest and enthusiasm.

Other interviews in the same series were similarly utilized. Use was made also of a series of foreign broadcasts from London, Bern, Cairo, and Dublin.

Miss Wallace refers to the rich possibilities for co-ordinating this work with other phases of activity in the department of English, such as the study of newspapers, magazines, and library sources. She concludes her report with the following statement concerning the importance of training for critical appreciation of radio.

It is interesting to note the vast difference between American and British broadcasting. In America our programs are almost entirely commercial programs, paid for by commercial interests as advertising mediums. In Britain programs are under governmental supervision and are primarily educational. While it is perhaps fortunate that our programs are free from governmental regulation, it is apparent that there is, for that very reason, a greater public need for training in radio appreciation and program selection in America, and teachers are in the logical position to provide this training.

*A survey involving problems of personal conflict.*—During the last school year a staff, headed by Professor Jesse B. Sears, from the

School of Education at Stanford University conducted a survey of the Union High School at Tracy, California. The survey was unique in having included within its scope, not only the usual professional and technical problems, but also difficulties of personal relationships which had developed in the conduct of the school. We draw on that portion of the introduction to the report of the survey which deals with the frictional problem. We do so not to give wider publicity to a disagreeable local situation but rather to show how the surveyors dealt with a problem likely to arise in more than a single locality. It is reassuring to note that the chief method recommended for composing personal differences is "a year's trial of fair dealing and hard work at carrying out the [technical] recommendations of the survey."

The situation that led to the survey was a general condition of distress in the school due to substantial disagreements within the board, to a somewhat broken morale within the school staff, and to a generally disturbed attitude toward the school on the part of the public. Sharp criticisms of certain individuals were being bandied about, complaints were being made of alleged high-handed methods in the management of the school, and worse still, high-school students were becoming partisans in the opposing camps. No very specific criticisms were heard of the school but only of persons in it.

Concerning these matters the board had held conferences with Dr. Vierling Kersey, state superintendent of schools, and with members of his staff. A survey was finally decided upon, in the hope that an unbiased study of the school and of its problems and needs might furnish the basis for adjusting personal differences and for improving the school.

In carrying out the tasks of the survey the writer has had the benefit of counsel and assistance from his colleagues, Drs. Almack, Eells, and Proctor, all widely experienced in survey work. From the start, for purposes of investigation, the two problems, one a scientific study of the school and the other a settlement of personal differences, have been kept clearly distinct in our minds. The one has been approached by the usual scientific methods, the other by the method of interviews and public addresses. The hope has been that the success of one of these may not have to await success in the other. Regardless of what is done with recommendations about the composing of personal differences, it is hoped that the school may not be robbed of benefits to be derived from the survey.

To get at the facts regarding the personnel difficulties in the case, personal interviews were held with some fifty individuals representing various interests and attitudes. These interviews produced evidence which, when sifted and checked, left certain very definite conclusions to be drawn. This report cannot present all the evidence; it would make a large volume. On the basis of the

evidence no fair-minded person could conclude otherwise than that the school is in no small measure the victim of circumstances over which it has no control. The present trouble is but an extension of troubles long ago passed by. Persons with other than school interests have meddled with the school or sought advantages at the expense of the school, not so much intending to harm the school as to advantage themselves or punish their enemies. There is a very large amount of misunderstanding involved, due to talebearing and personal prejudice. There are some animosities that have sought satisfaction, some bitter-enders who insisted upon their "pound of flesh." School officers have not been too generous as winners or too cheerful as losers. There has been substantial lack of co-operation where professional ethics clearly demands it. There has been some arbitrariness. All these are expressions of personal disagreement and not at all of disagreement about right theory or right management in school affairs. All agree well enough on what is right to do, but too many insist that the other fellow isn't playing fair. There are complaints of inefficiency, but they are not very well supported by facts.

To rid the school of this impasse the report has recognized these principles: first, that people have a right to disagree; second, that majority rule is an accepted principle in government; third, that the principal of the school is the executive officer of the board and is responsible for executing policies; fourth, that talebearing and gossip are unprofessional and contemptible everywhere; and, fifth, that the rights of the people take precedence over the personal rights of any school officer. It takes the view that settlement of this must be in the nature of a compromise, a give-and-take; that it cannot await the fixing of responsibility, the establishment of full justice for individuals. It insists rather that personal differences shall cease to interfere with the more important rights of parent, taxpayer, and child.

Several practical methods of settlement are examined in the report: (1) Let it be fought out in board elections and let the board settle it. (2) Ask board and staff to resign. (3) Ask principal and part of teachers to resign. (4) Ask no one to resign until the simpler method of personal adjustment and compromise be tried. The recommendation is in favor of the latter plan. The survey staff is convinced that forced resignations mean continued fighting and that continued fighting is foolish and futile in a civilized community. A year's trial of fair dealing and hard work at carrying out the recommendations of the survey will do more to compose differences than can be done in ten years of fighting, as the past proves, and surely with intelligent people the satisfactions would be greater. This would be a victory for right and decency and would furnish to the children of this community a demonstration they would not forget.

*"Home News" and faculty organization in Saginaw.*—The Arthur Hill High School, of Saginaw, Michigan, of which I. M. Brock is principal, has recently instituted at least two features that should

be of interest to other schools. One of these is the distribution with each pupil's report card of a copy of the *Arthur Hill Home News*, a brief bulletin of information concerning the school. The first issue reports growth in enrolments, teacher-pupil ratios, class enrolments, the schedule of classes, and similar information. The second feature is what is called a "functional organization of the faculty." The organization includes five committees of the faculty, namely, "teacher affairs," "public relations," "student activities," "curriculum," and "co-ordinating." The proposal for the organization urged that, as the high school increases in size and complexity, it is imperative that constant attention be given to problems of organization in order that the greatest possible degree of consolidation and integration of aims, interests, functions, activities, methods, and materials may be secured.

#### WHO'S WHO IN THIS ISSUE

HOLLAND D. ROBERTS, assistant professor of education at Stanford University. WALTER V. KAULFERS, assistant professor of education at Stanford University. THOMAS H. BRIGGS, professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia University. IVAN A. BOOKER, assistant director of the Research Division of the National Education Association. MAX HOUGHTON, instructor in economics at Central High School, Duluth, Minnesota. HARL R. DOUGLASS, professor of secondary education at the University of Minnesota. J. WAYNE WRIGHTSTONE, research associate at the Institute of School Experimentation, Teachers College, Columbia University. JOHN DALE RUSSELL, associate professor and secretary of the Department of Education at the University of Chicago.

## INTEGRATION IN LANGUAGE ARTS

HOLLAND D. ROBERTS AND WALTER V. KAULFERS  
Stanford University, California

Almost from the beginnings of foreign-language instruction in America, increased knowledge and appreciation of grammatical usage has been postulated as an aim of courses of study, not only in Greek and Latin, but also in French, German, Italian, and Spanish (2: 25-27, 3: 69-73, 14). Even in the most recent textbooks and courses in general language and foreign language, increased knowledge and appreciation of the mother-tongue are mentioned as desired outcomes (1, 8). Although the actual contribution of foreign-language work, as usually offered, to improvement in the vernacular has probably been overestimated rather than underestimated,<sup>1</sup> the specific recognition which is constantly being accorded this aim bespeaks a community of interest between English and foreign-language teachers that should bring them into closer contact.

In view of this community of interest it is surprising that efforts to integrate foreign languages with English have seldom reached even the experimental stage. The seeming indifference to opportunities for integration between English and the foreign languages is the more surprising when the many other objectives which the fields hold in common are considered. The improvement of reading habits, the refinement of taste in literature, the promotion of international understanding and good will, the development of desirable traits of character, and the inculcation of worthy ideals of conduct are as significant objectives in the field of English as in the field of the foreign languages;<sup>2</sup> yet not until recently has interest in this community of purpose been reaffirmed (6, 7). Even today, those who

<sup>1</sup> The studies of Limper, Price, Rice, Starch, Gray, Woody, and others in this field are well summarized by Cole (2: 30-34) and Coleman (3: 257-59).

<sup>2</sup> Compare, for example, the objectives of instruction in English and the foreign languages as outlined in the report of the National Council of Teachers of English (5) and in the report of the Research Council of the Modern Language Association of Southern California (19).

acknowledge the possibilities for integration<sup>1</sup> are prone to interpret them too narrowly.

The concrete form which integration in this area may assume depends on the allocation of emphasis within the fields themselves. Language, whether native or foreign, may be considered from three points of view.

The first regards language simply as a code whose symbolism is to be mastered. Thus conceived, the study of language becomes primarily a skill subject with major attention given to drill on the mechanics of speech. There is little question that the first two years of foreign language—and a considerable proportion of elementary work in English—has been predominantly of this type. Where university requirements confine programs in language arts to this level, integration is possible only on a limited scale. Almost the only significant opportunity for integration in such a program is the co-operative redistribution of emphasis on the linguistic skills in English and foreign-language classes to the end that the learner will not be confronted with technical issues in the foreign tongue before he has had occasion to meet comparable problems in the vernacular. By no means does this arrangement imply that English teachers are to drill on grammar in order to prepare pupils for foreign-language work. To the contrary, it means that foreign-language teachers will not expect pupils to accomplish in the foreign language that which experimentation has shown them to be incapable of mastering at the lower secondary-school level in English (15, 16). The field of language is so broad and so far beyond all possibilities of mastery in high school that postponement of such language usages as fall beyond the capacity of adolescent youth, and their replacement with content and activities better suited to the level of the pupil's maturity, is not only practicable but imperative in the interest of instructional efficiency (8, 11). In the past, for example, it has not been uncommon for pupils in foreign-language classes to be confronted with subjunctives in relative, adverbial, and adjectival clauses long before they made the acquaintance of clauses as such in English. A psychological adjustment of content and learning activities between the vernacular and the foreign languages is a worthy aim for integration in the lan-

<sup>1</sup> In general, teachers of English have been more appreciative of opportunities for integration than teachers of foreign languages (13).



guage arts. Beyond this adjustment the possibilities for integration on the skill level are few, hardly amounting to more than the conventional insistence on good language usage in oral and written speech in the classroom and to incidental comparison, between drills, of vocabulary, syntax, and idiom in the two languages.

The second point of view regards language not as a code or a tool but as an art with a history, a terminology, and a psychology of its own (9). So conceived, the study of language becomes an appreciation subject rather than a drill subject, and the outcomes properly belong in the field of the attitudes, interests, and appreciations rather than in the field of the skills. Owing to the confining influence of university requirements, the cultural aspects of language as an art have received only incidental attention in the study of modern foreign languages and relatively little in Latin, Greek, or English. Yet if language is man's most significant social invention and his most indispensable instrument of thought, it would seem that the opportunity to obtain a cultural overview of the history of language and an insight into its psychology should be open to every boy and girl. Such an exposure to linguistic culture would provide a valuable background for increased enjoyment and appreciation of the many associations of daily life, vocational as well as avocational, in which language functions. The growing realization of this fact has led to the introduction in some schools of cultural orientation courses in general language, sponsored either by the English or the foreign-language teachers.<sup>1</sup> In other institutions, where conditions prevent the organization of differentiated courses, the tendency has been to make the first semester of every foreign language an orientation course and to broaden the offering to include a cultural consideration of language as an art. Whenever attention is accorded the cultural aspects of language—the romance of words, the intriguing phenomena of linguistic change, or interesting differences in basic logic—the opportunities for integration between English and the foreign languages become numerous. Among the more obvious possibilities are:

1. A cultural survey of the contributions of Greek, Latin, German, and the Romance languages to the evolution of English.
2. The study of foreign words and expressions found in current English usage.

<sup>1</sup> A comprehensive bibliography on general language is contained in Walter V. Kaulfers (10).

3. Vocabulary activities capitalizing interesting facts of word derivation.
4. Exercises in inference stressing language as an index to foreign cultures. Thus, a list of words and expressions borrowed from the French (for example, military terms; phrases employed in social correspondence; culinary terms occurring on menus; scientific terms such as "ampere"; names of perfumes; the shop language of milliners, modistes, and hairdressers) affords interesting indications of the influence exercised by France on American culture.
5. Comparative word study emphasizing differences in the psychology of language. Such differences are readily comprehensible to the adolescent in the case of onomatopoeic words. The Spaniard, for example, does not hear the sounds of nature precisely as does the American: to him the rooster says *quiquiriquí* and not "cock-a-doodle-do," and for him the beat of the drum is *rataplán* rather than "rub-a-dub-dub." Even more striking differences are available in colloquial tropes and in popular idioms.
6. Informal excursions into comparative linguistics involving the observation of interesting differences in popular logic. Thus, in Spanish double negation is correct: *no he hecho nada* ("I haven't done nothing") is idiomatic Spanish because the Castilian considers the addition of negatives as a process of algebraic summation. Viewed from this angle, two or more negatives, when added, can yield nothing but a bigger and more emphatic negative. In textbook English, however, the process is considered one of multiplication. Consequently, to the American two negatives, when multiplied, yield a positive. The certainty with which the superiority of English usage can be asserted in this particular obviously depends on the extent of the individual's patriotic conceit in setting up his own mores as the measure and criterion for all things.

The foregoing examples will suffice to illustrate some of the contributions which a cultural study of language has to offer in the field of attitudes, interests, and appreciations. Certainly, an overview of such phenomena of language, when intimately related to the pupil's native language, affords countless possibilities for integration between the foreign languages and English. Nor is it too optimistic to maintain that such an integrated study possesses functional values for the pupil. It should enable him to take greater pleasure and interest in his linguistic environment—in new words and names, in foreign expressions occurring in English, in special usages, and in word choice as an element in literary or oratorical style (4). In a word, it should make him "language-conscious" and thus serve to develop his appreciation for his native language and to stimulate in him a certain measure of personal pride in the effective use of English. Not least, it should imbue him with a more favorable attitude toward the study of the mother-tongue. In the case of a considerable

number of pupils it may even contribute toward making the study of language, native or foreign, an educationally profitable leisure pursuit. To belittle the value of such outcomes is to discredit the entire field of the appreciations, for attitudes and interests in this area are no less functional or educative, in terms of utility in daily life, than any to be expected from the cultural study of art, music, astronomy, or nature.

The language arts, however, may be considered from still another standpoint. The third point of view regards language not merely as a tool nor as an art but, in its recorded form, as a treasury of human thought and experience. In the past the tendency has been to teach foreign languages merely as skills or codes, with primary emphasis in the early years on the mechanics of speech and with relatively little attention to the content expressed. The growing emphasis on terminal values, stimulated by the realization that the American secondary school is a college-preparatory institution for only 26 per cent of the pupils, has given impetus to a reorientation of foreign-language instruction (11). Whereas the foreign languages were formerly taught primarily as ends in themselves, they are now coming to be taught more and more as means of communication. The educational profession has begun to realize that to the non-specialist language is ultimately but a vehicle for the communication of thought, and it has begun to take into account the sorry fact that much which has heretofore been read, written, and said in lower-division classes has seldom been worth communicating.

Realizing that the foreign-language experience of 83 per cent of the pupils embraces only two years (2:16) and that the outcomes for the usual two-year course, when measured by objective tests of ability in reading, vocabulary, and grammar, are scarcely equivalent to the outcomes of *one semester* in college, foreign-language teachers have begun to appreciate the need for supplying courses with worthwhile content from the start, if the outcomes of the new program are to have meaning for adolescent boys and girls. The new orientation insists that the learner contact the culture of the country, primarily through the medium of the foreign tongue, *while he is developing skill in the use of the language*, not, as has formerly been the case, *after he has "covered the grammar."* In other words, the pupil is to sharpen his linguistic tools on content worth communicating from the stand-

point of the thought, ideas, or information expressed—cultural material, it may be, of a type calculated to introduce him to the foreign country and its people (12, 17, 18). In practice, this trend has already begun to manifest itself in two ways: It has led, in the case of certain schools, to a conversion of the conventional first-semester grammar course into a consumer type of orientation course, affording an introduction to select aspects of foreign life and culture; and it has broadened the concept of the instructional program to the extent of converting foreign-language divisions from “compartments of Spanish, German, and French” into what may be figuratively termed “departments of Spain, Germany, and France.”

When language is taught from the beginning as a means of communication, with due regard for the essential worth-whileness of the content expressed, the possibilities for integration, not only with English, but also with the social studies, the arts, and the sciences, become infinite. In the case of the language arts these possibilities may be capitalized in various ways:

1. Through reading activities. Teachers of English and foreign languages may encourage the reading of travel books, travel magazines, and suitable foreign literature in translation.
2. Through writing activities
  - a) Selected aspects of foreign life and culture may be accepted as subjects for compositions in English.
  - b) Translation of poems, fables, short stories, or one-act plays may be undertaken in classes stressing creative writing.
  - c) Foreign correspondence may be sponsored jointly by English and foreign-language teachers. Many pupils abroad study English and are quite competent to correspond with American pupils. It is by no means necessary that Americans write in the foreign tongue. Correspondence in French, German, Spanish, or Italian may be left to advanced students of foreign languages.
3. Through oral activities. Selected phases of foreign life and culture may be accepted as subjects for debates and talks in public-speaking or oral-English classes. In this connection, the organization of a student speakers' bureau may be helpful. The bureau may select, from among the pupils presenting reports on foreign countries, those whose presentations have special merit, with a view to inviting them to give their talks either before English or foreign-language classes (depending on the field in which the offering was prepared) in a true audience situation. This bureau may be sponsored jointly by the English and the foreign-language clubs.

4. Through extra-curriculum activities
  - a) Dramatizations: A foreign play may be presented in translation under the combined auspices of English and foreign-language teachers.
  - b) Club activities: English and foreign-language clubs may co-operate in sponsoring assembly programs commemorating the anniversary of an outstanding contributor to world-literature: Goethe (1933), Lope de Vega (1935), etc.
5. Through courses in world-literature. Courses based on foreign literature in translation may be sponsored by both the English and foreign-language teachers. (A course in world-literature has been offered in the Palo Alto High School and at the Lincoln School of Teachers College, Columbia University.)
6. Through cultural orientation courses in language arts. General-language courses designed to give the adolescent a cultural perspective and overview of the nature and history of language and an insight into its psychology may be similarly sponsored. Several junior colleges are making distinct progress in this direction.<sup>1</sup>
7. Through departmental interchange of instructors. During the discussion of selected phases of foreign culture—for example, literature—the instructor in English may be invited to talk to the foreign-language classes on the contribution of the foreign country (or a specific foreign author or movement) to English literature. The instructor of foreign language, depending on his special field of interest and competence, may contribute to the discussion in English classes. Classes in related fields may be invited as guests.
8. Through flexibility in individual pupil programs. In the case of conflicting classes or crowded programs, selected upper-division pupils may be permitted to substitute courses in world-literature, or in advanced Spanish, German, Italian, and French, for conventional courses in English.

Although the foregoing discussion can be considered only indicative of possibilities, the timeliness of the subject, owing to contemporary interest in integration, may imbue the suggestions with a certain measure of practical significance for teachers and curriculum-workers in the field of language arts.

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<sup>1</sup> See, for example, the elective course in word study in the Santa Ana (California) Junior College, as reported by T. H. Glenn (6). A somewhat similar course was introduced several years ago in the State Teachers College, San Diego, California.

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## THE PRACTICES OF BEST HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS

THOMAS H. BRIGGS  
Teachers College, Columbia University

During the past school year I had at my disposal part of the time of an intelligent, but not a professionally trained, graduate student. At my direction he visited twenty-one public high schools in New York and eleven suburban cities, taking with him a letter from me requesting that he be permitted to observe the work of the best teachers of any subjects. Without prejudice and with few instructions he made reports varying from 70 to 1,500 words, averaging about 600, on what he observed in 104 classrooms. (The courtesy of the principals and teachers is gratefully acknowledged.)

It would be illuminating of practices to present the reports in full, but they would require too much space. Instead, I shall give some analysis of them and some critical comments about them. To those accustomed to "model" or demonstration lessons or to illustrations used in textbooks of theory, the reports of these observed lessons may be disappointing. Hardly one could be used to exemplify ideal teaching, but they may fairly be considered as representative of current practices of teachers in the metropolitan area who are considered by the principals as their best teachers. There is no assumption that the reported practices are typical of those of the best teachers in other parts of the country, and no data were gathered to show how they differ from the practices of teachers in the same schools who are considered mediocre or poor. It is important that educators who are planning for the betterment of secondary education know what is actually being done in teaching, and principals who have shirked the responsibility for supervision, procrastinating it for easier and more immediately pressing duties of administration, may find in the description of these reports a challenge and a direction of what they can and should attack.

The reports are, of course, incomplete and imperfect. Studying



them, any student wishes to know many details that are not recorded. But, inasmuch as the observer was unprejudiced and attempted, for the most part, to act merely as a mechanical reporter of what happened, they can be fairly trusted as a transcript of what is happening daily in metropolitan high schools. In making an analysis of the reports, I have naturally looked for the exemplification of what I consider some principles of good teaching. These may or may not be accepted in theory by the teachers observed, or they may, of course, find expression in other classes. The number of classes ob-

TABLE I  
DISTRIBUTION OF CLASSES OF BEST HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS  
OBSERVED IN NEW YORK METROPOLITAN AREA  
ACCORDING TO SUBJECT OF LESSON

Subject	Number of Classes	Subject	Number of Classes
English.....	26	Music.....	4
Social studies.....	21	Commerce.....	3
Mathematics.....	15	Shop.....	3
Science.....	14	Latin.....	2
Modern languages.....	10	Physical training.....	1
Art.....	5	Total.....	104

served is sufficient to make the picture fairly accurate, and the principles stated or implied must stand on their own merits. The subjects of the classes reported are shown in Table I.

Of the 104 examples, about four in every five were conventional teaching from the textbook. Nineteen, or 18.3 per cent, were sufficiently different to merit special attention. Eleven of these were in English, one in French, four in music, one in American history, and two in general science. All the other teachers were doing—with varying techniques and with varying degrees of success, of course—what thousands of other teachers who follow their textbooks are doing daily throughout the country.

Illustrative of what was, in some cases generously, considered unusual procedure are the following: (1) English: pupils read reviews of current books and considered what a good book review

should contain; (2) English: a lively comparison of Brutus with Hitler, Dollfuss, and other modern statesmen; (3) English: an application of the moral of Frost's "Mending Wall"; (4) English: a substitution, in the study of logic, of decisions by the United States Supreme Court for Burke's speech; (5) English: an introductory discussion of Greek philosophy, a transition from the *Odyssey* to Plato; (6) English: a discussion of speeches made by pupils in the school assembly, leading to agreement on what are desiderata in such speeches; (7) music: a study of the characteristics of some Indian music played on a phonograph; (8) American history: a panel discussion of the actions of the United States in annexing new territory; (9) general science: a discussion of the reliability of advertisements of patent medicines.

A notable omission in the teaching reported was the failure to relate what was considered in the classrooms to the whole organization of the subject, or even to any large unit of it. There were only four teachers—two in English, one in music, and one in American history—who indicated to the pupils such a relationship. Unquestionably all, or at least most, of the teachers had in mind how the recitation unit was related to the whole plan of the course, and probably some of the pupils surmised the relation; but it goes without argument that, if pupils are to develop an understanding of the larger values of their studies, the relation of each and every unit to the hierarchies that comprise the course should be constantly emphasized.

No attempt was made accurately to evaluate the purposes that the teachers implied by their procedures, for sufficient data on the whole teaching unit were not available and generally accepted criteria for such evaluation are lacking. However, as some 80 per cent of the teachers merely taught lessons as presented in the textbooks, the purposes were primarily determined by the authors of the books. Of this majority group of teachers, few made any attempt to give a local meaning and significance to the textbook material. Among the minority group, on the other hand, there were frequent adaptations of material and occasional introduction of new material so that the education would in some degree prepare for the lives that the youths are leading or are expected to lead.

Turning to the purposes that the pupils had for such work as they

did, we find that the modern theory which advocates the proposal of purposes by pupils, or at least the intelligent comprehension and approval by them of the purposes of the teacher, has had almost no influence on this group. In not a single record is it reported that the pupils suggested something worth while for study or proposed an amendment to what the teachers assigned. In some instances the pupils are reported as understanding the ultimate objective that the teachers had in mind and as working intelligently to achieve it; but usually such comprehension as the pupils had was of some immediate objective or, rather, of a definite task set them, and there is no evidence that they knew what values it might contribute to more effective living then or at any later time. It is impossible to give definite percentages on this matter, but the conclusion is abundantly warranted by the record. Education in its best sense is not likely to be achieved when youths work, however earnestly, to learn facts or to perform tasks without understanding what they can do with the resulting knowledge and skills. In at least a fourth of the classes the evidence is clear that the pupils were working at assignments almost wholly meaningless to them, and in slightly more than one case in ten the pupils refused to accept as their own the purposes that seemed to direct the teachers.

It is probably too much to expect that pupils in the ordinary run of high schools, even schools so far developed as are those in the metropolitan area, will often propose good purposes for activity units in the subjects that are commonly required. It ought to be well within reason, however, to expect that teachers shall make pupils intelligent about the purposes of what they are set to do, not only intelligent, but so convinced of the worth of the tasks that they enthusiastically approve and adopt the teachers' plans. Perhaps secondary-school teachers become so much absorbed in their attempts to inculcate the *means* of education that they neglect education itself. This neglect is partly apparent in the failure, previously mentioned, to show the relations of small units to large ones.

According to theory, one should expect to find pupils notably lacking interest in tasks the values of which have not been proved to them, but that is far from being the case. In nearly half the classes the pupils were judged to evidence real interest in the procedures,

and in only a fourth of the classes did they seem actually uninterested or bored. In another fourth judgment could not be reliably made or it appeared that some pupils were interested and others were not. In numerous instances the interest was obviously extrinsic: in learning the case endings of the second declension, in the personality of the teacher, in accurately recording points in notebooks, in preparing for the New York Regents' examinations, and the like. Surprisingly, there seems to be no correlation between the interest evinced by the pupils and the apparent worth-whileness of the tasks at which they were set. There are instances in which the pupils worked with avidity on assignments that were drill practice on details utterly unrelated to obvious life-values, and there are other instances in which lessons well planned to contribute to better living left the pupils entirely cold. The only conclusion that seems warranted is that young, healthy minds may be interested (using the word in its popular sense) in any activity at which they have a fair chance of successful achievement.

Correlations of interest with other factors of procedure also fail to support theory. In the classes where interest was adjudged best, teacher activity was dominant in one-fifth, pupil activity in just a little less, and in the remaining nearly three-fifths the activity was conventionally divided between teachers and pupils. The type of recitation, apparently, does not materially affect the interest, a slightly larger proportion of the conventional classes than of those with unusual types manifesting high interest. When interest is correlated with teacher personality, a different result is found. The teachers who seemed attractive to the observer, for any of several reasons, secured unusual interest from their pupils in 85 per cent of the classes; those who seemed, by the same criteria, unattractive gained interest in only 15 per cent.

These facts do not in the least shake my confidence in the value of true interest as a means of education. It will be noted that what was judged by the observer as interest was in most instances merely an absence of boredom, an alertness, a willingness to work without constant external compulsion. This kind of interest is valuable—in fact, it is the kind which is conventionally sought and which probably in the majority of situations gives satisfaction to teachers, pupils,

school officials, and parents alike—but it is very far from true intrinsic interest, “the accompaniment of the identification, through action, of the self with some object or idea, because of the necessity of that object or idea for the maintenance of a self-initiated activity.”<sup>1</sup> If extrinsic interest is increased by attractive qualities in a teacher and if it improves in any way the work of pupils, intrinsic interest ought to be most easily achieved by an attractive teacher and it ought to lead to far more intelligent and effective results. I have no doubt that it does so, but there is no supporting evidence in these reports.

Another principle advocated by modern theory is that classroom activity should be chiefly pupil activity, motivated and directed by the teacher. It was not found to be such in these hundred and more classes. In only fifteen classes were the pupils doing most of the work, and from this total may fairly be subtracted the three in art and the two in shop in which pupils were working under the explicit directions of the teacher. Typical of what was classified, sometimes generously, as pupil activity is a French class in which several girls presented a play and then other girls asked questions in French concerning a story that was being read, the replies being given in French and the teacher merely correcting errors. Other illustrations are an animated discussion by the class of the likenesses and the dissimilarities of Frances Burney and Louisa M. Alcott, and a series of pertinent questions raised by members of a surveying squad who had met various kinds of difficulties in using the transit.

About 65 per cent of the classes used the conventional procedure of questions by the teacher on an assignment with answers by the pupils or of specific directions followed by board or seat work. The teacher-activity classes ranged from two admirable assignments that consumed practically a whole period to a straight lecture. It should be noted here that these teacher-activity classes were reported to gain unusually good interest in 52 per cent of the cases and unusually poor interest in only 9.5 per cent; the comparative percentages for

<sup>1</sup> John Dewey, *Interest and Effort in Education*, p. 14. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1913.

the pupil-activity classes are 62.5 and 6.3, and for the conventional classes, 44.8 and 14.5.

Judgments from single observations of the attractiveness of teachers are, of course, notably unreliable, but it may be recorded that the same number, thirteen, were judged unusually attractive and unattractive. In the latter group were listed the teachers who used sarcasm, were lifeless, or apparently incited fear. Three-fourths of the teachers did not stand out one way or the other. In no case does the record show the use of unusual scholarship, although, of course, it may have been possessed by many. Obviously certain of the topics—such as the discussions of modern opera, of the United States policies regarding the annexation of new territory, of Supreme Court decisions, of reports on poison used by savages and on sterilization, and of Greek philosophy—required more and broader knowledge than did the topics of case endings, figures of speech, the collection of terms in equations, and the making of chlorine. On each of the larger topics the teacher's information seemed adequate.

The types of recitation observed were for the most part conventional, 75.9 per cent being so classified. About one in five was unusual in some way, being a panel discussion, the presentation of a play or prepared reports, or a discussion of some local or personal problem. Only four could be called socialized, and two of these were in form only, the recitation proceeding conventionally though there were pupil chairmen and secretaries. Only one was of the project type, though several others tended toward that method. It was obvious from these reports of 104 classroom procedures that the unit method of work, as advocated by Morrison and others, has found no hospitality among these superior teachers in the high schools of the New York metropolitan area. Not a single lesson could be assigned to this type.

As indicated, the methods used were predominantly the conventional ones of questioning on assigned lessons and giving directions for work to be done at the board or at seats. In fifty-seven reports there is no mention of any assignments. In some cases the observer probably failed to note the assignments, but it is notable that these cases include all the classes in music, art, and shop. Is no outside

preparation required or expected in these subjects? Of the assignments recorded in the remaining classes, more than three-fourths were conventional or mechanical—so many problems to work or so many pages to read. Slightly fewer than a fourth of the assignments are judged by theoretical criteria to have been good. None was sufficiently notable to warrant being presented as an example to emulate. As judged by the procedures, about one lesson plan in five can be said to vary from the mechanical in such ways as to deserve commendation. In a fourth of the classes for which questions were reported, the teachers showed such skill as to be notable as departing from the mechanical.

This exposition of the practices of 104 selected teachers in 21 public high schools of the metropolitan area gives a fairly good idea of what is going on in such classrooms. Though the number of observations might well have been larger and the reports might have been made in greater detail by a more skilled observer, it cannot be doubted that the picture is fairly reliable. The evidence does not show that the teaching exemplified to any satisfying degree the theories which all these trained teachers have had presented to them in professional courses. There can be no question that these teachers are, by and large, superior to the general average, even in their own large urban schools, all of which require professional training and select their teachers, who are attracted by superior salaries, with care. Why, then, is the teaching not more in accord with generally approved theory? It can hardly be argued that the theory is all wrong. Are the teachers not sufficiently convinced of its soundness to take the trouble necessary to break from the traditional procedures? Or are they too heavily loaded to find the time and the strength? Or are the conventional procedures so satisfactory to their superior officers and the public that there is no stimulus to attempt anything unusual? It scarcely seems possible that such teachers could not be made far better than they are, as evidenced by these reports, if there were constant and skilled supervision.



## RECENT CONGRESSIONAL ACTIVITIES AFFECTING EDUCATION

IVAN A. BOOKER  
National Education Association

Twice during the present presidential administration Congress has met in regular sessions to consider problems of national importance and to enact needed legislation. There has been ample opportunity, therefore, for the present Congress to demonstrate its interest in, and attitude toward, education. What has that attitude been? What has Congress accomplished for education during the past two and a half years? In answer to these questions, there is presented here a brief summary of bills and resolutions relating to education introduced at the two most recent sessions of Congress and of the measures enacted into law.

### EDUCATION IN THE SEVENTY-THIRD CONGRESS

During the second session of the Seventy-third Congress about ninety bills and resolutions having direct implications for education were introduced. In the following list these are shown by number and author and are classified according to general subject matter.

#### IDENTIFICATION NUMBER AND AUTHOR OF BILLS AND RESOLUTIONS ON EDUCATION INTRODUCED INTO THE SEVENTY- THIRD CONGRESS, SECOND SESSION\*

- |                             |                          |
|-----------------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Emergency grants to keep | H.R. 7477—Collins        |
| schools functioning during  | H.R. 7479—Ellzey         |
| 1933-34, 1934-35, or both   | H.R. 7520—Cartwright (2) |
| S. 2402—George              | H.R. 7525—Brown          |
| S. 2522—George              | H.R. 7873—Johnson        |
| S. 2837—George              | H.R. 8137—Collins        |
| H.R. 6533—Swank (2)         | H.R. 8219—Deen           |

\* Bills enacted into law are italicized. A few of these bills carried provisions relating to two of the topics listed. A number in parentheses after the name of the author of a bill indicates another possible classification. Thus, H.R. 6533, introduced by Mr. Swank, sought to provide emergency funds to keep schools open and is classified under Topic 1; it also would have authorized loans from the Reconstruction Finance Corporation for salaries and therefore might have been classified under Topic 2.

- H.R. 8289—Rogers  
H.R. 8433—Fletcher  
H.R. 9142—McSwain  
H.R. 9544—Douglass
2. RFC loans or other federal aid to school districts to refinance indebtedness or pay teachers' salaries in arrears  
S. 3054—Trammell  
H.R. 6367—Glover  
H.R. 6570—Sabath  
H.R. 6621—Dunn  
H.R. 6971—McClintic  
H.R. 7546—Terry  
H.R. 7754—Britten  
H.R. 7981—Keller  
H.R. 8093—Terry  
H.R. 8348—Glover  
H.R. 9465—Sabath
3. RFC loans to institutions of higher education  
S. 2350—Davis  
S. 2436—Duffy  
S. 2753—Walsh  
H.R. 7015—McSwain  
H.R. 7854—Fish  
H.R. 7977—Guyer
4. School buildings as public-works projects  
S. 3348—La Follette  
†H.R. 6379—Byrns  
H.R. 8955—Gregory  
H.R. 9151—Brunner
5. Employment of college students, recent graduates, or teachers  
H.R. 6968—Hoeppe  
H.R. 8393—McSwain
- H.R. 8956—Gregory  
H.R. 9527—Kelly
6. Vocational education  
‡S. 2119—George  
H.R. 7059—Ellzey  
‡H.R. 7089—Jeffers  
‡H.R. 7802—Black
7. Minor provisions applying to specified institutions of higher education  
S. 1347—White  
S. 2042—Sheppard  
S. 2379—Ashurst (10)  
‡H.R. 6554—McSwain  
‡H.R. 7237—Greenway (10)  
H.R. 7595—Pierce (10)
8. Duties of the United States Office of Education and the Commissioner of Education  
S.Res. 220—Walsh  
H.Res. 268—Kenney  
S. 3145—Shipstead  
‡H.R. 8835—Lundeen
9. Education of the handicapped  
S. 2922—McKellar  
H.R. 9143—Norton  
‡H.R. 8701—Dunn
10. Use of public lands or properties for educational purposes  
‡S. 872—Smith  
S. 2395—Erickson  
S. 2430—O'Mahoney  
‡H.R. 7351—Ayers  
H.R. 9457—Tarver
11. Education of aliens  
H.R. 7300—Strong
12. Oaths of allegiance for teachers  
H.J.Res. 339—Kenney

†Passed by the house in which introduced.

‡Identical with, or similar to, another bill listed.

- |  |                    |
|--|--------------------|
| 13. Allocating time for educational and cultural broadcasts        | †S. 1826—Wheeler   |
| H.R. 8977—Rudd   | †S. 1977—Wheeler   |
| H.R. 9121—Brunner  | S. 2152—Vandenberg |
| 14. A national conservatory of music                               | †S. 2426—Wheeler   |
| S. 2829—Copeland   | S. 2566—Thompson   |
| †H.R. 7755—Wadsworth   | S. 2571—Johnson    |
| 15. Training of aviators   | †S. 2769—Bone      |
| S. 2991—Sheppard   | †S. 2893—Wheeler   |
| †H.R. 8400—McSwain   | †S. 2894—Wheeler   |
| 16. Education of Indian children and those in outlying possessions | †S. 2940—Norbeck   |
| †H.J.Res. 257—O'Malley   | S. 3587—Wheeler    |
| †S. 236—Wheeler  | H.R. 6174—Dimond   |
|  | †H.R. 6469—Ayers   |
|  | †H.R. 7146—Ayers   |
|  | †H.R. 7241—Howard  |
|  | H.R. 7361—Hill     |
|  | H.R. 7412—Wallgren |

Prominent among the educational bills introduced at this session of Congress were those having to do with meeting the emergency in education, listed under Topics 1 to 5. Forty bills had as their objective the extension of emergency federal aid in some form to educational institutions and agencies. Fifteen proposed emergency educational grants to the several states, according to need, to keep schools open during the entire school year 1933-34, 1934-35, or both. Thirteen bills, including two of the fifteen proposing emergency grants, proposed loans from the Reconstruction Finance Corporation or other federal aid to school districts for the refinancing of indebtedness or the payment of teachers' salaries in arrears. Six bills sought to extend loans from the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to institutions engaged in higher education; four dealt with school buildings as public-works projects; and four with the employment of students, recent graduates, or teachers.

Congress showed considerable interest in a number of the bills relating to the emergency in education but did not pass any law in this field. From February 26 to March 1, 1934, the House Education Committee held extended hearings on the need for emergency federal aid for public education in the several states in 1933-34 and 1934-35. The hearings were concerned not with the merits or the shortcomings of particular bills but rather with the extent of the crisis in educa-

tion and the need for emergency aid. Two points were emphasized: (1) the imperative need for emergency federal aid and (2) the desirability of separating aid for education from the general program of relief. On the latter point no one spoke more emphatically than Harry L. Hopkins, federal relief administrator, who declared that his agency was not in a position to determine the need for educational grants nor to administer effectively any program of educational relief that might be deemed advisable. When the hearings were completed, members of the Education Committee seemed virtually unanimous in recognizing the existence of a serious emergency in the schools and in believing that federal aid for 1933-34 and 1934-35 ought to be provided. It was not until May 8, 1934, however, that the committee bill, H.R. 9544, was introduced, together with the committee's report recommending its passage. By that time the session was so nearly over that the bill did not reach the floor of the House.

About the middle of March, 1934, hearings were held before a Subcommittee of the Banking and Currency Committee of the House of Representatives to determine the need for loans to school districts from the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. It was brought out in the hearings that means of refinancing loans at reasonable rates of interest were needed badly in hundreds of school districts, that teachers' salaries amounting to some \$55,000,000 were unpaid, and that outstanding salary warrants in states where this problem was acute amounted to about \$48,300,000. The Banking and Currency Committee, however, did not regard this problem as one for federal legislation, for it did not report out any bill.

One bill relating to the emergency in education, H.R. 6379, passed the House of Representatives but not the Senate. This bill, introduced by Congressman Byrns, would have amended the National Industrial Recovery Act to allocate 30 per cent of the funds appropriated by the recovery act for building purposes, including school buildings.

The remaining bills and resolutions, listed under Topics 6-16, had to do with special educational projects or with some aspect of the federal government's permanent and continuing relations to education in the several states. Prominent among these were proposals re-

lating to vocational education, higher education, the work of the United States Office of Education, instruction in special fields—for example, aviation—the education of the handicapped, and the education of Indian children. Sixteen of these bills had as their objective the appropriation of specified sums to be used as part payment on school buildings in certain school districts having Indian children to be educated.

Nine of these non-emergency bills were enacted:

H.R. 7059—Appropriating \$3,000,000 a year for three years for vocational education, agricultural education, and home economics, all sums payable to the states on a matching basis.

S. 1347—Directing the Secretary of War to cancel from his property accounts the sum of \$1,451.41 representing certain articles and properties charged against Little Rock College, Little Rock, Arkansas.

S. 2042—Creating a new professorship in the department of physics at the United States Military Academy at West Point, New York.

S. 2379—Granting the use of certain public lands to the University of Arizona.

S. 2922—Amending and liberalizing previous laws relating to the circulation of reading matter among the blind.

H.R. 9143—Providing for the care and education of the orphans of certain war veterans.

S. 2152—Appropriating funds as part payment on a school building used by both white and Indian children in a school district in Michigan.

S. 2566—A similar appropriation for a school district in Nebraska.

S. 2571—Authorizing the Secretary of the Interior to enter into certain contracts with the states for the proper education of Indian children.

Although the foregoing bills are the only separate educational measures enacted, two additional pieces of legislation should be mentioned.

First, there was a deficiency appropriation bill placing \$890,000,000 at the disposal of the relief administrator subject to executive order. During the course of the hearings on this bill the House subcommittee asked for an itemized statement of proposed expenditures. The statement submitted carried an item of \$48,000,000 to assist schools from September, 1934, to February, 1935, when legislatures and the new Congress would be in session. The enactment of this appropriation bill was significant, for between September, 1934, and the first of May, 1935, about \$1,500,000 was distributed by the

Federal Emergency Relief Administration in certain districts unable to maintain their schools.

Second, there was a home-industries act, to which was attached the Sabbath Amendment. This amendment authorized the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to make loans to school districts prior to January 31, 1935, not to exceed \$75,000,000, such loans to be used in payment of teachers' salaries due prior to June 1, 1934. This six-line amendment to an industrial-loan bill is outstanding among the educational provisions made by the second session of the Seventy-third Congress. Under the terms of this law the school city of Chicago was able to borrow \$22,300,000 to pay the salaries of teachers, many of whom were in actual want.

#### EDUCATION IN THE SEVENTY-FOURTH CONGRESS

In the first session of the Seventy-fourth Congress there was no lack of legislative proposals with reference to education. At least 160 bills and resolutions were introduced. These are classified according to topic in the following list.

#### IDENTIFICATION NUMBER AND AUTHOR OF BILLS AND RESOLUTIONS ON EDUCATION INTRODUCED INTO THE SEVENTY- FOURTH CONGRESS, FIRST SESSION\*

- |  |  |
|--|--|
| 1. Federal grants for public education for one or more years | 2. RFC loans to public-school districts          |
| S. 2190—Logan  | S. 3123— <i>Robinson</i>                         |
| H.R. 2868—Terry  | H.R. 2050—Knutson                                |
| H.R. 4552—Johnson  | H.R. 2867—Terry                                  |
| H.R. 4677—Rogers   | H.R. 3253—Terry                                  |
| H.R. 4745—Deen   | H.R. 5697—Doxey                                  |
| H.R. 5264—Kenney   | H.R. 6227—Ford                                   |
| H.R. 5296—Rogers   | ‡H.R. 8398—Terry                                 |
| H.R. 5719—Lee  | ‡H.R. 8628—Terry                                 |
| H.R. 5923—Lee  |  |
| H.R. 6201—Sauthoff (5)                                       | 3. RFC loans to institutions of higher education |
| H.R. 6360—Lundeen  | S. 1433—Capper                                   |
| H.R. 6370—Ford   | S. 1834—Walsh                                    |
| H.R. 6959—Robson   |  |

\* Bills enacted into law are italicized. A few of these bills carried provisions relating to two of the topics listed in this table. A number in parentheses after the name of the author of a bill indicates another possible classification. Thus, H.R. 6201, introduced by Mr. Sauthoff, sought to provide emergency funds to keep schools open and is classified under Topic 1; it also would have provided for school buildings as public-works projects and therefore might have been classified under Topic 5.

‡ Identical with, or similar to, another bill listed.

- H.R. 80—Ludlow  
 H.R. 150—Cochran  
 H.R. 152—Cochran  
 H.R. 4242—Woodrum  
 H.R. 4871—Pearson  
 H.R. 4990—Guyer
4. Extension of educational activities under the FERA  
 H.R. 16—Fulmer  
 H.R. 121—Bloom  
 H.R. 3050—Fletcher  
 H.R. 6955—Deen  
 H.R. 8430—Bloom
5. School buildings as public-works projects  
 H.R. 4987—Byrns
6. Research fellowships  
 H.R. 3005—Hoeppe
7. Vocational education  
 S. 2883—George  
 H.R. 8211—Disney  
 H.R. 8809—Lee
8. Minor provisions applying to institutions of higher education  
 †S. 978—Steiner  
 S. 1180—Walsh (10)  
 S. 1871—Wheeler  
 S. 2105—Sheppard  
 S. 2247—Hatch  
 †S. 2399—Sheppard  
 S. 2745—Duffy  
 H.R. 3477—Randolph  
 †H.R. 4675—Palmisano  
 H.R. 6088—Stack  
 H.R. 6155—Faddis  
 †H.R. 6871—Dempsey  
 H.R. 7486—Vinson  
 H.R. 7776—Ramspeck
9. Duties of the United States Office of Education and the Commissioner of Education  
 H.Res. 1—Kenney
- †S. 1116—Shipstead  
 S. 2196—Sheppard (10)  
 S. 2926—Walsh  
 S. 3064—Moore and Barbour  
 †H.R. 4015—Secrest  
 H.R. 6094—Kenney  
 H.R. 6223—Taylor  
 H.R. 6807—Kenney
10. Education of the handicapped  
 S. 1130—Wagner  
 S. 2631—McKellar  
 †S. 2680—Barkley  
 S. 2809—Bailey  
 †H.R. 4120—Doughton  
 †H.R. 4142—Lewis  
 †H.R. 4539—Mead  
 H.R. 4688—Randolph  
 †H.R. 5732—Keller  
 H.R. 6371—Keller
11. Use of public lands or properties for educational purposes  
 S. 463—McNary  
 H.R. 88—Mead  
 H.R. 8024—King
12. Endowment of land-grant colleges  
 S. 2022—Bankhead  
 S. 2228—Bankhead  
 †H.R. 6123—Jones  
 H.R. 7160—Jones  
 H.R. 8006—McGehee
13. Schools in the District of Columbia  
 †S. 400—King  
 S. 924—Capper  
 H.R. 6992—Wood
14. Establishment of new national schools or other national educational agencies  
 S. 2500—Bone

† Passed by the house in which introduced.



- H.R. 2858—Romjue  
H.R. 4543—Gavagan  
H.R. 5359—Ford  
H.R. 5733—Mitchell  
H.R. 7985—Gasque
15. Guidance and employment of students and graduates  
S.Res. 67—Walsh  
S.J.Res. 107—Robinson  
H.J.Res. 404—Kenney  
S. 16—Copeland, Vandenberg, and Murphy  
H.R. 6118—McSwain
16. Conservation education  
S. 2384—Copeland
17. Improvement of bus routes  
H.R. 2731—Ashbrook
18. Oaths of allegiance; banning of instruction about communism  
H.J.Res. 3—Kenney  
H.R. 6362—Polk
19. Education of Indian children and those in outlying possessions  
S. 1306—Bulow  
S. 1521—Wheeler  
S. 1522—Wheeler  
S. 1523—Wheeler  
S. 1524—Wheeler  
S. 1525—Wheeler  
S. 1526—Wheeler  
‡S. 1527—Wheeler  
S. 1528—Wheeler  
‡S. 1529—Wheeler  
S. 1530—Wheeler  
S. 1533—Bone  
S. 1534—Bone  
S. 1535—Bone  
S. 1536—Johnson  
S. 1537—Norbeck  
‡S. 2094—Wheeler  
S. 2193—King
- ‡S. 2315—Tydings  
‡S. 2462—Borah  
S. 2621—Frazier  
S. 2795—Gore  
‡S. 2849—Bone  
S. 3091—Frazier  
S. 3092—Frazier  
‡S. 3093—Frazier  
‡S. 3094—Frazier  
‡S. 3095—Frazier  
S. 3096—Frazier  
S. 3167—Schwellenbach  
S. 3372—Wheeler  
S. 3452—Thomas  
H.R. 165—Dimond  
‡H.R. 1395—Lea  
‡H.R. 3999—Wallgren  
‡H.R. 4297—Hill  
‡H.R. 4446—Hildebrandt  
‡H.R. 5207—Ayers  
‡H.R. 5209—Ayers  
H.R. 5210—Ayers  
‡H.R. 5212—Ayers  
H.R. 5213—Ayers  
‡H.R. 5214—Ayers  
‡H.R. 5215—Ayers  
H.R. 5216—Ayers  
‡H.R. 5499—Monaghan  
‡H.R. 5500—Monaghan  
H.R. 6315—Ayers  
‡H.R. 6651—Wallgren  
H.R. 6723—Dimond  
‡H.R. 7266—White  
H.R. 8188—Dimond  
‡H.R. 8290—Burdick  
H.R. 8511—Burdick  
H.R. 8512—Burdick  
‡H.R. 8513—Burdick  
‡H.R. 8514—Burdick  
‡H.R. 8515—Burdick  
‡H.R. 8726—Burnham  
H.R. 8996—Burnham  
H.R. 8997—Burnham  
‡H.R. 9060—Ayers

Measures relating to the emergency in education again figured prominently among the bills introduced. Thirteen bills proposed federal grants for education for one or more years; eight proposed the extension of loans from the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to school districts; eight dealt with loans from the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to institutions engaged in higher education; five proposed the extension of certain educational activities being carried on by the Federal Emergency Relief Administration; two bills (including one classified under Topic 1) sought more generous provisions for school buildings in the public-works program; and one measure would have created research fellowships for the relief of unemployed students.

Hearings were again conducted by the Education Committee of the House of Representatives relative to the need for emergency grants for public education. The bills given primary consideration were H.R. 5923 and H.R. 4745, introduced by Congressmen Lee and Deen, respectively. No bill on this subject, however, was reported favorably by the Education Committee.

Hearings on the need for loans to school districts from the Reconstruction Finance Corporation were conducted first by the Banking and Currency Committee of the House of Representatives; later, by the corresponding Senate committee. The sponsors of the bills under consideration—S. 3123, identical with H.R. 8398 and H.R. 8628—were able to announce to these committees that this legislation was acceptable to the administration and to the chairman of the board of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation. Favorable committee reports followed promptly, and S. 3123 was passed by both houses. The complete text of this bill follows.

PUBLIC—No. 325—74TH CONGRESS

[S. 3123]

AN ACT TO PROVIDE FOR THE RELIEF OF PUBLIC-SCHOOL DISTRICTS  
AND OTHER PUBLIC-SCHOOL AUTHORITIES  
AND FOR OTHER PURPOSES

*Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the Reconstruction Finance Corporation is hereby authorized and empowered to make loans out of the funds of the Corporation in an aggregate amount not exceeding \$10,000,000 to or for the benefit of tax-supported public-school districts or other similar public-school authorities*

in charge of public schools, organized pursuant to the laws of the several states, territories, and the District of Columbia. Such aggregate amount shall be allocated equitably among the several states and territories, and the District of Columbia, on the basis of demonstrated need. Such loans shall be made for the purpose of enabling any such district or authority which, or any state, municipality, or other public body which, is authorized to incur indebtedness for the benefit of public schools (herein referred to as the "borrower") to reduce and refinance outstanding indebtedness or obligations which have been incurred prior to the enactment of this Act for the purpose of financing the construction, operation and/or maintenance of public-school facilities.

Such loans shall be subject to the same terms and conditions as loans made under section 5 of the Reconstruction Finance Corporation Act, as amended, except that (1) the term of any such loans shall not exceed thirty-three years; (2) each such loan shall, in the opinion of the Corporation, be reasonably and adequately secured, and, in respect to the type of security, shall be secured (a) by bonds, notes, or other obligations for the payment of which shall be pledged the full faith and credit and taxing power of the borrower or of such taxing authority as may be authorized pursuant to state law to levy assessments, taxes, or other charges for the benefit of public schools, and/or (b) by bonds, notes, or other obligations which are a lien on real property of the borrower, and/or (c) by such other collateral as may be acceptable to the Corporation; (3) the borrower shall agree not to issue during the term of the loan any other obligations so secured, and insofar as it may lawfully do so, shall agree not to assume during such term any further indebtedness for the benefit of public schools, except with the consent of the Corporation; (4) the borrower shall agree, insofar as it may lawfully do so, that so long as any part of such loan shall remain unpaid the borrower will in each year apply to the repayment of such loan or to the purchase or redemption of the obligations issued to evidence such loan, an amount equal to the amount by which the assessments, taxes and other funds received by it for the benefit of public schools exceeds (a) the cost of operation and maintenance of the public-school facilities which are financed in whole or in part by such amount of assessments, taxes or other charges, received by it; (b) the debt charges on its outstanding obligations; and (c) provisions for such reasonable reserves as may be approved by the Corporation.

No loan shall be made under this section until the Corporation (a) has caused an appraisal to be made of the taxpaying ability of the taxing district or other territory throughout which assessments, taxes, or other charges are authorized to be levied for the purpose of paying the costs of, or for the purpose of securing funds to repay indebtedness incurred to finance the construction, operation, and/or maintenance of the public-school facilities on account of which the indebtedness was incurred or obligations assumed which are to be reduced and refinanced in connection with a loan from the Corporation made under this section; (b) has been satisfied that an agreement has been entered into with the holders

of outstanding bonds, notes, and/or other obligations incurred by or for the benefit of the tax-supported public-school district or other similar public-school authority in charge of public schools which indebtedness or obligations are to be reduced and refinanced in connection with a loan from the Corporation, under which agreement it will be possible to purchase, reduce, or refund all or a major portion of the aggregate of outstanding indebtedness and obligations incurred by or on behalf of such district or authority at a price determined by the Corporation to be reasonable after taking into consideration the average market price of the evidences of the indebtedness or obligations to be reduced and refinanced over the six months' period ending January 1, 1935, and under which a substantial reduction will be brought about in the aggregate of such outstanding indebtedness and obligations; and (c) has determined, in view of such appraisal of taxpaying ability and of such substantial reduction in the aggregate of such outstanding indebtedness and obligations, that the operation of the public-school facilities to refinance indebtedness or obligations incurred for the benefit of which a loan from the Corporation is applied for under this section, is economically sound and will promote the general welfare of the community.

When any loan is authorized pursuant to the provisions of this section and it shall then or thereafter appear that repairs and necessary extensions or improvements to the public-school facilities, to refinance the indebtedness or obligations incurred for the benefit of which such loan is authorized, are necessary or desirable for the further assurance of the ability of the borrower to repay such loan, the Corporation, within the limitation as to total amount provided in this section, may make an additional loan or loans to such borrower for such purposes.

The proceeds of any loan applied for by a borrower under this section may be paid either to such borrower or to the holders or representatives of the holders of the bonds, notes, and/or other obligations to be reduced and refinanced in connection with such loan, and such loans may be made upon promissory notes collateralized by such bonds, notes, and/or other obligations, or through the purchase of securities issued or to be issued by such borrower.

SEC. 2. No loan shall be made by the Corporation under this Act where any part of the proceeds of such loan are to be used for purposes authorized by section 16 of the Act approved June 19, 1934 (Public, Numbered 417, Seventy-third Congress).

Two other tests of the interest of members of Congress in the emergency in education should be mentioned. The Neely Amendment to the Emergency Relief Appropriation Act of 1935, which proposed the earmarking of \$300,000,000 for school-building purposes, received a vote of 33 to 44 in the Senate. The Cutting Amendment to the same measure, allocating \$40,000,000 as an educational grant to the states for 1934-35, according to their needs, passed the Senate by a vote of 55 to 25 but was removed by the conference com-

mittee of the Senate and House in favor of a general clause allocating \$300,000,000 for the relief of white-collar workers, including "educational" workers.

Exactly half of the remaining 124 bills before the Seventy-fourth Congress, First Session, pertained to school-housing provisions for Indian children in certain specified school districts or to educational facilities in our outlying possessions (Topic 19). Other bills carried provisions affecting particular colleges or universities, the United States Office of Education, and the school system of the District of Columbia. Still others dealt with vocational, agricultural, or industrial education, the guidance and employment of students, the education of the handicapped, and the establishment or introduction of schools and courses of special types.

Twenty of the bills making provisions for Indian children or children in the territories were enacted:

S. 1522, S. 1523, S. 1524, S. 1525, S. 1526, S. 1528, S. 1530, H.R. 5210, H.R. 5213, H.R. 5216, and H.R. 6315—Appropriating funds for school-building purposes in certain Montana school districts in which there are Indian children.

H.R. 8511 and H.R. 8512—Carrying similar appropriations for school districts in North Dakota.

S. 1533, S. 1534, and S. 1535—Carrying similar appropriations for school districts in Washington.

S. 1536, S. 1537, and S. 2193—Carrying similar appropriations for school districts in California, South Dakota, and Utah, respectively.

H.R. 6723—Authorizing the town of Valdez, Alaska, to issue bonds, not to exceed \$50,000, for school-building purposes and authorizing the town to accept grants of money to aid it in financing any public works.

One Senate resolution was agreed to, and seven additional bills on various topics were enacted:

S. 1180—Increasing the number of beneficiaries at Columbia Institution for the Deaf from 125 to 145.

S. 2105—Increasing the enrolment at the United States Military Academy at West Point, New York.

S. 2247—Granting the use of certain public lands to the University of New Mexico.

H.R. 3477—Confirming the incorporation of Trinity College, Washington, D.C., and approving its amended articles of incorporation.

H.R. 6223—Appropriating funds for the regular work of the United States Office of Education.

H.R. 6371—Increasing the annual appropriation for books for the adult blind.

H.R. 7160—Providing for the extension of agricultural research and appropriating additional funds for land-grant colleges.

S.Res. 67—Directing the Secretary of Labor to inform the Senate of ways in which the federal government can give additional employment to recent graduates of educational institutions.

In addition to the twenty-eight measures mentioned above and S. 3123, authorizing the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to make loans to school districts, two general-welfare measures should be cited because of their educational implications. The Social Security Act (Public Law No. 271) provides for the care and education of certain dependent and handicapped children. Public Law No. 76, by virtue of the Steagall Amendment, makes it possible for school districts to obtain from their local banks construction loans covered by the federal-insurance plan.

#### SUMMARY

Thirty-seven bills and one resolution, or 15 per cent of the bills and resolutions on education introduced into Congress during the two most recent sessions, received favorable action. Twenty-nine of the laws enacted confer benefits on particular schools or school districts; three relate to the care and education of certain dependent or handicapped persons; two laws and one resolution pertain to the work of departments of the federal government; one law, to vocational education; one, to agricultural research and land-grant colleges; and one law authorizes the Reconstruction Finance Corporation to make loans to school districts.

Educational clauses or amendments in general-welfare measures include (1) the Sabbath Amendment to the home-industries act (expired January 31, 1935), (2) inclusion of the term "educational" workers in H. J. Res. 117, the \$4,800,000,000 relief bill, (3) provisions for certain dependent and handicapped children in the Social Security Act (Public Law No. 271), and (4) the Steagall Amendment to Public Law No. 76, extending the federal insurance plan to construction loans obtained by school districts from local banks.

## AGE AND GRADE CLASSIFICATIONS AS FACTORS OF ACHIEVEMENT IN HIGH-SCHOOL ECONOMICS

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MAX HOUGHTON

Central High School, Duluth, Minnesota

HARL R. DOUGLASS

University of Minnesota

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### THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

The experiments described in this article were carried on in an effort to obtain reliable quantitative data with regard to the relative progress made by Seniors, Juniors, and Sophomores in high-school economics. The investigation was carried on in the Duluth Central High School during the school year 1931-32. This school is a large city high school with an enrolment of twenty-four hundred pupils.

The study extended over a period of two semesters. Economics is a one-semester subject, and two separate experiments were conducted during the year. In each semester one of the writers taught six classes in economics, the pupils in which constituted the population for the study. About 180 pupils were enrolled in economics in each of the two semesters. In the first unit of the study twenty-four Sophomores, sixty-nine Juniors, and fifty-four Seniors were used in the investigation. As the enrolment of Sophomores was small in the first semester, this unit of the study was used largely as an exploratory or preliminary experiment. Certain procedures and tests were tried out in order that their fitness for the experiment proper might be determined. For these reasons, only the experiments of the second semester are discussed in this report.

In the second semester forty-five Sophomores were enrolled in economics, thirty-five of whom were in a class by themselves. Sophomores were pupils with less than seven credits; Juniors, those with seven to eleven credits; and Seniors, those with more than eleven credits. All pupils were checked for previous failures that might in any way affect grade placement. Pupils of doubtful classification were not considered.



## EQUATING GROUPS

In the second unit, or main part, of the experiment, twenty-five Sophomores, twenty-five Juniors, and twenty-five Seniors were matched on the basis of intelligence, chronological age, and marks in ninth-grade English, one pupil of each class being matched with one of each of the other two. A difference of one year in chronological age was allowed between Seniors and Juniors and between Juniors and Sophomores. The average scores on the Miller Mental Ability Test and the Pressey Senior Classification Test were about one point less than the norms for the average age of each group. The average chronological ages were almost exactly sixteen years for the Sophomores, seventeen for the Juniors, and eighteen for the Seniors. The average marks in ninth-year English for the different classes were approximately identical, although that of the Seniors was slightly higher than those of the Juniors and the Sophomores. On the whole, the groups were closely matched. In pairing these groups, the writers had sufficient numbers from each year of the high school to permit the elimination of all pupils of irregular or doubtful classification.

## MEANS OF MEASURING PROGRESS

The instrument for measuring achievement was a test compiled by one of the writers. Sixty of the questions were taken from the Wesley Test on Terms in the Social Studies. The remaining one hundred questions were selected by the investigators. Many of the questions had been used in examinations prepared by the Minnesota State Department of Education in previous years. The 160 items included 93 multiple-choice, 50 completion, and 17 matching exercises. The reliability of the test was .932.

Three measures of progress in economics were used: (1) final scores in the test on economics; (2) the gain in score, measured by the difference between the scores on the initial and the final tests; (3) the percentage of gain, found by dividing the gain by the difference between the initial-test mark and the best possible score on the test.

## THE RESULTS

The average scores made by the pupils are shown in Table I. The Seniors' final average mark on the test in economics was 7.4 points

higher than the Juniors' mark and 19.5 points higher than the Sophomores' average. However, since the average mark of the Seniors on the initial tests was 13.5 points higher than that of the Juniors and 24.0 points higher than that of the Sophomores, the final-test scores lose some of their significance. It is impossible, therefore, to place great emphasis on the comparative final averages, although they are worthy of mention.

TABLE I  
SCORES ON TEST IN ECONOMICS MADE BY MATCHED GROUPS OF  
25 SOPHOMORES, 25 JUNIORS, AND 25 SENIORS

Class	Total	Median	Mean	Standard Deviation
Sophomores:				
Initial-test score.....	1,188	46.0	47.5	16.2
Final-test score.....	2,367	97.0	94.7	23.0
Gain.....	1,179	48.0	47.2	12.5
Juniors:				
Initial-test score.....	1,450	57.0	58.0	14.5
Final-test score.....	2,670	110.0	106.8	16.4
Gain.....	1,220	50.0	48.8	18.0
Seniors:				
Initial-test score.....	1,788	74.0	71.5	18.6
Final-test score.....	2,856	114.0	114.2	14.4
Gain.....	1,068	43.0	42.7	12.3

The relative gains made are much more significant. The average gain of the Juniors was 6.1 points (14 per cent) more than the average gain of the Seniors, and 1.6 points (3 per cent) more than the gain of the Sophomores. One Junior gained 93 points—23 points more than any other pupil enrolled during the semester. When this pupil's score was eliminated, the mean gain of the Juniors was still considerably higher than that of the Seniors and somewhat higher than that of the Sophomores. The writers are unable to give any definite explanation of the comparatively small gain made by the Seniors other than the possibility that, as the Seniors approached a higher level of perfection on the initial test, to make progress which would show in the final-test results became correspondingly difficult.

Because of this possibility, the gains were converted into percentages of the possible gain; that is, the gain of each pupil was divided by the difference between his score on the initial test and the total possible score on the examination. The respective averages of the percentages of possible gain were as follows: Juniors, 48.3; Seniors, 46.9; and Sophomores, 43.9.

The statistical significances of the differences in the gains are

TABLE II  
RELIABILITIES OF THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE GAINS IN TEST  
SCORES IN ECONOMICS MADE BY MATCHED GROUPS OF 25  
SOPHOMORES, 25 JUNIORS, AND 25 SENIORS

Groups Compared	Difference	Standard Error of Difference*	Critical Ratio	Chances in 100 that Difference is a True Difference
Gains in test scores:				
Juniors over Sophomores.....	1.6	4.16	0.38	65
Sophomores over Seniors.....	4.5	3.20	1.41	92
Juniors over Seniors.....	6.1	3.80	1.34	91
Percentages of gain:				
Juniors over Sophomores.....	4.4	4.21	1.05	85
Seniors over Sophomores.....	3.0	3.57	0.84	80
Juniors over Seniors.....	1.4	3.90	0.36	64

\* Computed by long formula containing cross-product term.

presented in Table II. None of the differences between the gains of any two of the groups or between the percentages of gains of any two groups was statistically reliable (as great as three times the standard error of the difference).

It would seem, therefore, that, judged either by relative gain or by the percentage of possible gain, Seniors are not likely to do significantly better work than Juniors in high school nor, in fact, likely to do materially better work than Sophomores of equal ability. Examination of the gains of individual pupils revealed that, of the twenty-five Sophomores, eleven made percentages of gain better than the average for the Seniors and eleven did better than the average for the Juniors. Seven of the twenty-five Sophomores made final-test scores greater than the average of the Seniors, and nine of the Juniors did as well or better than the average Senior. When judged by raw

gains, sixteen of the twenty-five Sophomores exceeded the average of the Seniors, and twelve exceeded the average of the Juniors, while fifteen of the twenty-five Juniors exceeded the average gain of the Seniors.

#### SOPHOMORES IN A CLASS BY THEMSELVES VERSUS SOPHOMORES IN MIXED CLASSES

One of the chief arguments advanced by school administrators opposed to the enrolment of Sophomores in high-school economics is that the Sophomores are backward and timid when mixed with Seniors and Juniors. Nine of the forty Sophomores who finished the course in the second semester were in mixed classes. Three of the nine were used in the pairing process of the main study. No perceptible differences were noticed between their progress and the achievement of the thirty-one Sophomores taught in a section by themselves. However, the number in mixed classes was too small to give reliable comparisons.

#### IMPLICATIONS OF THE FINDINGS

The results of this investigation do not indicate that younger pupils in the senior high school are markedly inferior in progress in economics. The Sophomores and the Juniors made better average gains than the Seniors of equal ability, but this fact does not clearly prove that the former achieved more. The initial- and final-test scores of the Seniors were higher, and it seems logical to assume that it is more difficult to raise scores at higher than at lower ranges. The exact amount of achievement made by each class cannot, therefore, be definitely stated because the test was not scaled. It may, however, be safely stated that Juniors are likely to do practically as well in economics as Seniors, and it does not appear that any serious mistake would be made in permitting at least the more intelligent and industrious Sophomores to enrol for high-school economics.

## MEASURING SOME MAJOR OBJECTIVES OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES

J. WAYNE WRIGHTSTONE  
Teachers College, Columbia University

### CURRICULAR PRACTICES AND OBJECTIVES

The older practices in instruction in the social studies placed stress on facts and information. When a pupil could recite from memory a large portion of the facts assigned to be learned, the advocates of those practices felt they were obtaining worth-while results. The answers to a questionnaire sent out by W. J. Osburn<sup>1</sup> to a large number of history teachers are good examples of the usual status of social-studies objectives. These replies were abstract, varied, and vague. Teachers answered that they were attempting to teach citizenship, patriotism, historical backgrounds, historical perspective, etc. Osburn requested each of the teachers to send him a copy of recent examinations which had been given to the pupils. These examinations measured, almost exclusively, the number of facts which children remembered. The teachers evidently were unable to obtain or to construct tests which would measure the other equally important objectives of social-studies instruction.

Within the past few years many changes in objectives and curricular practices have occurred. In particular, faculties of the experimental high schools under the auspices of the Commission on the Relation of Secondary School and College of the Progressive Education Association have attempted to restate their objectives and to appraise their results by more adequate tests and records. The social-studies tests which are described in this article have grown out of some of the work done in conjunction with these experimental high schools. When the teachers of experimental curriculums were asked to state the objectives of the social studies toward which they were working, the following major outcomes of instruction were

<sup>1</sup> *Are We Making Good at Teaching History?* Prepared under the direction of W. J. Osburn. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1926.

evident: (1) development of civic interests, beliefs, and attitudes; (2) development of work-study habits and skills; (3) development of ability to interpret social-studies data; (4) learning to apply facts and principles; and (5) development of sensitivity to significant problems. The teachers are also working toward the development of anecdotal records of significant pupil behavior.

The general supervision of the evaluation program in the experimental high schools of the Progressive Education Association is allotted to Professor Ralph W. Tyler. The previous work of Tyler<sup>1</sup> in developing new tests at Ohio State University is widely recognized. Some of the same techniques of test construction as were used successfully by Tyler and his associates for the natural sciences at the college level of instruction were used in making social-studies tests for use in the experimental high schools.

#### TESTING CURRICULAR OBJECTIVES

In order to meet the needs of appraisal of the objectives indicated by the teachers, the writer has been experimenting with several new social-studies tests. He turned his attention first to the measurement of some of the intellectual factors which teachers consider important. Thus, he planned new tests with titles such as the following: "Interpreting Facts of American Culture and History," "Applying Generalizations to Social-Studies Events," "Working Skills in Social-Studies Research," "Ability To Organize Research Materials," and a "Scale of Civic Beliefs."

In the test entitled "Interpreting Facts of American Culture and History" is the following item, which may be considered typical of non-statistical data.

In New England of the seventeenth century the ministers, the magistrates, persons who came from prominent families in England, and the wealthy merchants had the best pews in church, wore the best clothes, and, if guilty of breaking any law, were allowed to pay fines instead of receiving corporal punishment. The artisans and farmers owned small properties, had good pews in

<sup>1</sup> a) Ralph W. Tyler and Others, *Service Studies in Higher Education*. Bureau of Educational Research Monographs, No. 15. Columbus, Ohio: Ohio State University, 1932.

b) Ralph W. Tyler, *Constructing Achievement Tests*. Columbus, Ohio: Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, 1934.

the church, wore fairly good clothes, but were liable to corporal punishment for misdemeanors. Hired laborers, servants, and slaves had the poorest pews in church, wore rough clothes, and were especially liable to corporal punishment.

In the original edition of this test the pupil was asked to write his own interpretation or conclusion based only on the facts given. Several judges then rated the answers of various pupils on an eleven-point scale using the equal-appearing-interval technique, which is similar to the procedure used by Thurstone for the scaling of his attitudes and opinion scales. A later revision of the test permits the pupil to indicate his judgment of stated interpretations of a series of facts on the following bases:

1. Reasonable interpretation considering all related facts stated.
2. Interpretation which considers part of facts or goes beyond facts stated.
3. Interpretation contradicted by the related facts stated.

The pupil who achieved a perfect score on the interpretations of the previously cited test item would mark the interpretations thus:

- a) In seventeenth-century New England there were class divisions according to which various privileges were granted . . . . . (1)
- b) In seventeenth-century New England the people were opposed to slavery . . . . . (3)
- c) In seventeenth-century New England the wealthiest people had the best clothes and were protected by the law . . . . . (2)
- d) Since the seventeenth century the laws have been made so that everyone is treated in the same way . . . . . (3)
- e) In New England during the seventeenth century luxuries, favoritism, and privileges went in accordance with one's station in life . . . . . (1)
- f) In the seventeenth century in New England the clergy received more privileges than the laborers . . . . . (2)

Except for the addition of several new items, the items in the revised form of the test are the same as those in the original form. In the original form the pupil had to propose his own inferences and interpretations; in the revised form he has to distinguish among three qualities of a series of proposed inferences and interpretations. The results of the original test were correlated with the results of the revised test, and a correlation ratio of .86 was computed for one class of pupils and .84 for another class. It is assumed, therefore, that the revised test may be substituted for the original test.

The test for "Applying Generalizations to Social-Studies Events"



was constructed by making an analysis of a number of generalizations which teachers expect pupils in the social-studies classes to reach. A sample item of this test is as follows:

In South Africa, where the climate is quite dry, or arid, even stock-raising is limited, although it is better suited to most of the country than farming. Rain-falls are few in the far northwestern section of the United States. There is little agriculture in that region, and there, too, the land is used primarily for grazing. The semi-arid quality of the land in Arabia also is well suited to grazing. Explain: .....

1. Trade equalizes the supply of goods in different parts of the world.
2. Agriculture is difficult in rugged regions.
3. The greater the area of a nation, the greater its economic independence.
4. Climate is an important determining factor in productiveness.
5. Arid lands are better suited to grazing than to agriculture.

It will be noted that Items 2, 4, and 5 explain the social-studies events which are described. This test was constructed to measure the ability of the pupil to apply generalizations to more or less specific events. The pupil is asked to place on the line after each test item the numbers of the generalizations which explain the facts stated.

A test on the "Working Skills in Social-Studies Research" was also constructed. This test consists of five major parts: Part I tests the ability of the pupil to read and interpret narrative descriptive material; Part II tests ability to read tabular statistical material; Parts III and IV, ability to read the various types of bar, line, and picture graphs; Part V, ability to locate data in books or the library, encyclopedias, etc. It was thought that such a test might provide a good index of the pupil's ability actually to understand the printed materials from which he must secure his facts as well as a test of his knowledge of certain library techniques.

Another test was devised in an attempt to measure the ability of the pupil to organize the facts or data which were collected in the library, laboratory, or classroom investigations. This test of "Ability To Organize Research Materials" included measures for such abilities as: I, separating relevant from irrelevant materials; II, sensing the logic of complete ideas; III, co-ordinating and subordinating materials; and IV, outlining ideas under a stated topic.

Another test, a "Scale of Civic Beliefs," was constructed which measured the beliefs and attitudes of pupils in described situations.

This test is divided into four parts and purports to measure civic attitudes and beliefs in the fields of (1) race attitudes toward negroes, Indians, Chinese, Japanese, and others; (2) international attitudes toward the League of Nations, immigration, tariff, Philippine Islands, and the like; (3) national political attitudes toward the Constitution, political parties, laws, and the like; and (4) national achievements and ideals in morals, economics, education, and the arts and sciences. The total score of the test presents a composite index of a person's tendency to favor liberal positions on controversial issues. For validity as to liberalism the items were checked against editorial opinion in liberal magazines, such as the *Nation* and the *New Republic*. For a consensus of liberalism versus conservatism the items were checked by social scientists of admittedly liberal points of view.

#### BATTERY OF TESTS FOR MAJOR CURRICULAR OBJECTIVES

The theory which underlies a battery of social-studies tests is that each test measures one important aspect, or objective, of social-studies teaching. Such objectives and the corresponding pupil abilities are interrelated parts of a larger understanding of the social studies. Undoubtedly, a number of important objectives of social-studies teaching, to which many teachers would subscribe, are not considered in the measurement attempted in this newly constructed battery of tests. If such a battery of tests proves, however, to be both reliable and valid, it will provide a much better and a broader basis than has heretofore been available for appraising pupils' abilities and powers to learn in the social studies. The older practice of evaluating pupil achievement on the basis of an informational test alone will be supplanted by evaluation in terms of varied curricular objectives.

The illustration on page 776 represents a cumulative record by which the achievement of a pupil may be preserved for a series of years. Thus, the achievement of a pupil, John Jones, in each of several major objectives of the social studies may be shown.

Any selected battery of tests will have limitations. Some critics claim, for example, that the majority of tests measure verbal and abstract experience rather than concrete social action. The force of school conditions and circumstances necessitates that the data for

the social studies shall be acquired largely through verbal, graphic, and statistical media. Tests are constructed to measure intellectual aspects of vicarious—therefore, verbal—and indirect experience rather than performance and direct experience in social situations. The common civic experiences of the majority of citizens are supplied predominantly by means of indirect, vicarious experience, namely, through newspapers, magazines, reports, books, pictures, films, conversation, trips, and the like. Schools which employ such

CUMULATIVE RECORD OF SOCIAL-STUDIES ACHIEVEMENT			
Name of Pupil	<u>John Jones</u>	School	<u>Middletown High</u>
Address	<u>100 Main Street</u>	Course	<u>College-preparatory</u>
Social-Studies Objective	Percentile Scores		
	1935	1936	1937
1. Information.....	61	65	68
2. Interpretation of data.....	72	71	75
3. Applying generalizations.....	65	70	72
4. Work-study skills.....	74	78	78
5. Organizing data.....	52	60	65
6. Civic-beliefs scale.....	50	52	55

lifelike activities in the social studies may find that the tests described provide a fair index of the various pupil abilities in acquiring and dealing with social-studies data.

#### RELIABILITY OF THE SOCIAL-STUDIES TESTS

The provisional forms of the new social-studies tests possess comparatively high coefficients of reliability. All the coefficients were computed by the odd-even method and were corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula. The coefficient for "Interpreting Facts of American Culture and History" is .89; for "Applying Generalizations to Social-Studies Events," .92; for "Working Skills in Social-Studies Research," .91; for "Ability To Organize Research Materials," .88; and for "Scale of Civic Beliefs," .94. The range of the grades of the pupils whose scores were included in these computations was from Grades X to XII, inclusive.

## VALIDITY OF THE SOCIAL-STUDIES TESTS

These tests were constructed following an analysis of the statements of the major curricular objectives which were made by a group of progressive high-school teachers. All test items were selected from the kinds of activities in which the pupils had engaged and to which the teachers had guided them. The original and the revised forms of the test of ability to interpret data, for instance, were carefully constructed by actually asking pupils to formulate interpretations of given facts and then using the pupil interpretations for a ranking technique in the revised form of the test, which correlated very highly with the original. Likewise, in the test on applying generalizations social-studies events were obtained from newspapers, textbooks, and reference books actually in use in classrooms. The generalizations were taken primarily from Billings' *A Determination of Generalizations Basic to the Social Studies Curriculum*<sup>1</sup> and similar sources. The test on working skills was constructed after an analysis of the types of data which pupils were obtaining from the newspapers, magazines, reports, and books. The test on ability to organize data, which will probably be drastically revised, attempted to follow the pupil process involved in selecting topics and subordinating, coordinating, relating, and outlining data.

These tests deal principally with verbal, statistical, graphic, and described data of the social studies. They purport to measure only such factors. Performance factors must be measured by other means, such as observational techniques involving ratings, diaries, anecdotal records, stenographic records, and time-sampling methods.

The intercorrelations among the various new tests which were devised are presented in Table I. The test of applying generalizations, for example, has a correlation of .46 with working skills, .37 with organizing data, and .41 with civic beliefs. Other tests show similar degrees of intercorrelation. As the available data did not allow correlation of the test of interpreting facts with other tests, it is not listed in Table I. From the correlations which were computed, certain inferences would seem to be evident. First, the low positive co-

<sup>1</sup> Neal Billings, *A Determination of Generalizations Basic to the Social Studies Curriculum*. University Research Monographs, No. 11. Baltimore: Warwick & York, Inc., 1929.

efficients of correlation show that there are some common elements or concomitant factors which all the tests measure. One might reasonably assume such a condition before the computing of the correlations. Second, the low coefficients indicate that each test measures a special pattern of abilities and that duplication is at a minimum in this battery of tests.

#### SUPPLEMENTARY MEASURES IN SOCIAL-STUDIES INSTRUCTION

As previously indicated, the range of measures that might be used in social-studies instruction is large. The pencil-and-paper tests on information, skills, attitudes, and interests are well known. Some progress has already been made in measuring group discussion and

TABLE I  
INTERCORRELATIONS AMONG VARIOUS NEW TESTS  
IN THE SOCIAL-STUDIES BATTERY

Social-Studies Test	Working Skills	Organizing Data	Civic Beliefs
Applying generalizations.	.46	.37	.41
Working skills.....		.39	.28
Organizing data.....			.24

planning in the social studies by means of a controlled-observation technique.<sup>1</sup> This method provides a quantitative value for the frequency of certain defined types of pupil behavior. This technique is now being revised and supplemented to include a cumulative anecdotal record illustrating the quality of the defined categories of behavior. These anecdotal records are then assigned a value by the equal-appearing-interval technique on the basis of an eleven-point scale with values of 0-10, inclusive. Thus, quantitative and qualitative values may be assigned to such categories of pupil behavior as initiative, co-operation, consideration, etc., as these become evident in classroom behavior. By such means an index may be secured for the performance, or concomitant, factors in the instructional processes.

Pupil diaries and stenographic records possessing evidence of growth of the pupils in relation to the social studies might be ana-

<sup>1</sup> J. Wayne Wrightstone, "An Instrument for Measuring Group Discussion and Planning," *Journal of Educational Research*, XXVII (May, 1934), 641-50.

lyzed and certain indexes computed which would be valid measures of pupil growth for certain objectives of the social studies. Consider, for instance, the objective of "development of sensitivity to social problems." A pupil diary of reactions to social problems plus stenographic records of verbal discussion of social problems might be used as the basis for devising an index of "sensitivity."

A large and only slightly explored field of measurement in the social studies is open to imaginative, informed, and inventive students of education. Efforts are needed to improve and expand the existing old and new measures of social-studies instruction. New and more inclusive measures which conform with new and more inclusive objectives of the curriculum must be evolved.

#### SUMMARY

Recent curricular changes and experimentation, especially in the social studies, have made apparent curricular objectives in which pupil growth cannot be measured adequately by the existing tests. For measuring, at least partially, some of the newer objectives in the social studies, a battery of tests was constructed for interpreting facts and data, applying generalizations to social-studies events, using working skills, organizing facts and data, and judging civic beliefs and attitudes. Although these instruments were limited to pencil-and-paper tests, significant aspects of pupil growth in collecting, organizing, and interpreting data of a verbal, statistical, tabular, and graphic nature have been measured. The reliability coefficients of the tests are comparatively high, approximately .90 in all instances. Future revisions and lengthening of the tests will allow for higher reliabilities. The intercorrelations among the various tests in the battery are sufficiently low to indicate that certain concomitant elements exist in all tests—as one might expect—but that each test measures a particular function of social-studies instruction.

Other supplementary and newer measures for evaluation of social-studies instruction are being devised. Such measures include the controlled-observation techniques, anecdotal records, pupil diaries, stenographic records, and others. There is a definite need for newer and more inclusive measures which will allow valid appraisal of the newer objectives of the emerging social-studies curriculum.

## SELECTED REFERENCES ON HIGHER EDUCATION<sup>1</sup>

JOHN DALE RUSSELL  
University of Chicago

This list covers the period from July 1, 1934, to June 30, 1935. Titles pertaining to the education of teachers are not included but appear in the December number of the *Elementary School Journal*. The volume of literature appearing on the subject of higher education continues to be large; the number of titles published during the past year that are worthy of being listed is much larger than can be reported in the limited space here allowed.

As in previous lists, the selection has been made along somewhat arbitrary lines. This year practically all books, bulletins, and monographs have been included. Annual reports, proceedings, and year-books of associations and foundations have not been listed because most persons who use this list are doubtless familiar with these standard sources. The articles from journals have been selected chiefly on the basis of their contributions to new knowledge and, hence, are those that would be considered of greatest significance by the person who already has a fairly wide acquaintance with the literature of higher education. One or more articles have been included from most of the journals that regularly deal with topics in higher education.

555. AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION, COMMITTEE ON EDUCATIONAL TESTING. "The 1934 College Sophomore Testing Program," *Educational Record*, XV (October, 1934), 471-516.

A complete statistical report presenting general norms as well as other institutional comparisons for the 1934 tests.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 18 in the list of selected references appearing in the January, 1935, number of the *School Review*, Items 277 and 309 in the June, 1935, number of the *Elementary School Journal*, Items 435, 443, and 468 in the September, 1935, number of the *School Review*, Item 498 in the October, 1935, number of the *School Review*, and Item 544 in the November, 1935, number of the *School Review*.



556. ANDERSON, RUTH E. "Two-Way Currents of Service: The Colleges and Their Alumni," *Bulletin of the Association of American Colleges*, XXI (May, 1935), 330-73.  
Analyzes the services that colleges are rendering their alumni, the support furnished the colleges by their alumni, and the means used for maintaining a vital connection between the alumni and their colleges.
557. BADGER, HENRY G. *The Economic Outlook in Higher Education for 1934-35*. United States Office of Education Pamphlet No. 58 (1934). Pp. 50.  
An early release of statistics showing changes in numbers of members on the teaching staffs, in faculty salaries, and in the financial situations of American colleges and universities, professional schools, and teacher-training schools at the opening of the academic year 1934-35.
558. BEACH, ARTHUR G. *A Pioneer College—The Story of Marietta*. Marietta, Ohio: Marietta College, 1935. Pp. xiv+326.  
A well-written history, by a member of the faculty, published on the occasion of the hundredth anniversary of the granting of the present charter of Marietta College.
559. BEHRENS, H. D. "Effects of a 'How To Study' Course," *Journal of Higher Education*, VI (April, 1935), 195-202.  
A report of an investigation of remedial work with potentially failing students.
560. BIZZELL, WILLIAM BENNETT. *The Relations of Learning*. Norman, Oklahoma: University of Oklahoma Press, 1934. Pp. x+178.  
A series of addresses delivered during the past ten years.
561. BOUCHER, CHAUNCEY SAMUEL. *The Chicago College Plan*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935. Pp. xi+344.  
Describes the new college plan at the University of Chicago and evaluates the results thus far obtained.
562. BYRNS, RUTH, and HENMON, V. A. C. "Entrance Requirements and College Success," *School and Society*, XLI (January 19, 1935), 101-4.  
Additional proof that the subjects traditionally required for entrance to college are by no means essential for success in higher institutions.
563. BYRNS, RUTH, and HENMON, V. A. C. "Long-Range Prediction of College Achievement," *School and Society*, XLI (June 29, 1935), 877-80.  
Indicates that lack of ability to do college work can be predicted fairly early in the student's educational career.
564. COFFMAN, LOTUS D. *The State University—Its Work and Problems*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1934. Pp. xii+278.  
A significant compilation from recent speeches and articles by one of America's leading thinkers on the subject of state-supported higher education.

565. COWLEY, W. H. "The History of Student Residential Housing," *School and Society*, XL (December 1 and 8, 1934), 705-12, 758-64.  
Analyzes problems of student housing from the time of the medieval universities down to the present, with particular emphasis on the modern period of attention to the provision of adequate housing facilities.
566. COWLEY, W. H. "The College Guarantees Satisfaction," *Educational Record*, XVI (January, 1935), 27-48.  
A philosophical and historical discussion of the basis of student-personnel service in higher institutions.
567. EASTERBY, J. H. *A History of the College of Charleston*. Charleston, South Carolina: College of Charleston, 1935. Pp. 380.  
A carefully documented history of an interesting institution, published on the occasion of its sesquicentennial.
568. EELLS, WALTER CROSBY, and CLEVELAND, AUSTIN CARL. "Faculty Inbreeding" and "The Effects of Inbreeding," *Journal of Higher Education*, VI (May and June, 1935), 261-69, 323-28.  
Presents data concerning the extent of inbreeding, the types of institutions in which it is prevalent, etc., with evidence that inbreeding is, in general, harmful to the career of the professor. A bibliography is included.
569. ELLIOTT, EDWARD C., CHAMBERS, M. M., and ASHBROOK, WILLIAM A. *The Government of Higher Education*. Chicago: American Book Co., 1935. Pp. xiv+290.  
Summarizes principles of college and university administration in catechetical form, presenting material especially valuable to members of boards of trustees.
570. GOODSELL, CHARLES TRUE, and DUNBAR, WILLIS FREDERICK. *Centennial History of Kalamazoo College*. Kalamazoo, Michigan: Kalamazoo College, 1933. Pp. 214.  
Two members of the faculty describe the history of this institution from its founding in 1833 to 1933.
571. HELM, MARGIE M. "Duplicate Copies of Collateral References for College Libraries," *Library Quarterly*, IV (July, 1934), 420-35.  
Develops a technique for computing the amount of duplication of collateral references necessary to supply a given class of undergraduate students.
572. HESTON, FRANCIS MARION. *A Survey of College Surveys*. Lexington, Kentucky: University of Kentucky, 1934. Pp. 230.  
A critical study of the survey movement in higher education and a detailed analysis of the recommendations made in eighteen survey reports.
573. HILL, DAVID SPENCE. *Control of Tax-supported Higher Education in the United States*. New York: Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1934. Pp. 386.  
Discusses educational control as a problem of government and the instrumentalities controlling state higher education. Describes in detail the development

and control of tax-supported higher education for each of the forty-eight states, with some attention to the outlook for the future.

574. JENKINS, MACGREGOR. *Sons of Ephraim*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1934. Pp. x+236.  
A popularly written historical account of life at Williams College, replete with personal anecdotes.
575. JOHN, WALTON C. *Graduate Study in Universities and Colleges in the United States*. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 20, 1934. Pp. xiv+234.  
Treats the development of graduate instruction in the United States, its general control and administration, and the standards and requirements for graduate degrees.
576. JOHNSTON, JOHN B. *Education for Democracy*. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota Press, 1934. Pp. viii+280.  
Presents a compilation of papers and addresses, presented during the past ten years, relating to the general theme of the function of higher education in a democratic society.
577. JONES, EDWARD S. (Editor). *Studies in Articulation of High School and College*, Series 1. University of Buffalo Studies, Vol. IX. Buffalo, New York: University of Buffalo, 1934. Pp. xiv+320.  
Reports studies, made at the University of Buffalo, dealing particularly with the superior student, the prediction of college performance, and the overlapping between high-school and college curriculums.
578. KELLY, FRED J., and RATCLIFFE, ELLA B. *Privately Controlled Higher Education in the United States*. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 12, 1934. Pp. vi+56.  
Reviews the early development of the church-related colleges in Colonial America and the current status of higher education under each of the major religious denominations and under private auspices.
579. KEPPEL, FREDERICK PAUL. "American Philanthropy and the Advancement of Learning," *School and Society*, XL (September 29, 1934), 401-11.  
Discusses the influence of the endowed foundations on the American educational program.
580. LOWELL, A. LAWRENCE. *At War with Academic Traditions in America*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1934. Pp. xiv+358.  
Addresses, articles, and excerpts from the annual reports of the president emeritus of America's oldest institution of higher education.
581. LYLE, GUY R. *Classified List of Periodicals for the College Library*. Boston: F. W. Faxon Co., 1934. Pp. xviii+102.  
Lists 365 periodicals that have been determined to be desirable for the library of a liberal-arts college.

582. MCNEELY, JOHN H. *Supervision Exercised by States over Privately Controlled Institutions of Higher Education*. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 8, 1934. Pp. vi+64.
- Analyzes the laws of each of the states to show the extent to which various aspects of the non-public institutions are under governmental supervision.
583. MANEY, CHARLES A. "The Governing Board," *Journal of Higher Education*, V (October, 1934), 373-76.
- Summarizes opinions from 357 college and university presidents concerning the relation of members of the governing board to the institution.
584. MOREY, LLOYD. "Finance and Business Administration in Institutions of Higher Education," *Finance and Business Administration*, pp. 143-47. Review of Educational Research, Vol. V, No. 2. Washington: American Educational Research Association of the National Education Association, 1935.
- Reviews the research studies that have appeared during the preceding two years on the subject of financial and business administration.
585. MORGAN, C. L., and REMMERS, H. H. "Liberalism and Conservatism of College Students as Affected by the Depression," *School and Society*, XLI (June 8, 1935), 780-84.
- Finds that students are considerably more liberal in their thinking now than before the onset of the depression.
586. MORISON, SAMUEL ELIOT. *The Founding of Harvard College*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1935. Pp. xxvi+472.
- This first volume of a monumental four-volume work carries the history of Harvard down only to 1650, but includes about 150 pages of excellent material on the European background of American higher education.
587. NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON STANDARD REPORTS FOR INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION. *Financial Reports for Colleges and Universities*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1935. Pp. xiv+286.
- Presents the recommendations for a uniform system of financial reporting for higher institutions based on sound principles of accounting which have been evolved after several years of painstaking investigation by leaders in the field of college and university finance.
588. *Proceedings of the Conference on Higher Education, University of Oregon, July 11, 12, 13, 14, 1934*. University of Oregon Commonwealth Service Series, Vol. I, No. 2. Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon, 1934. Pp. iv+150.
- Presents papers on topics associated with the adaptation of higher education to present social needs.

589. "The Progress of the American College in Two Decades," *Bulletin of the Association of American Colleges*, XXI (March, 1935), 24-54.

A symposium on progress in intellectual achievement, artistic appreciation, social insight, and moral control, by Frank Aydelotte, Frederick C. Ferry, Edwin Mims, and James H. Ryan.

590. RATCLIFFE, ELLA B. *Accredited Higher Institutions, 1934*. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 16, 1934. Pp. vi+176.

Reports on all the various national, regional, and state accrediting agencies; quotes the standards on which they operate; and lists the higher institutions accredited by them.

591. "Reports Relating to the Revision of Standards for Institutions of Higher Learning," *North Central Association Quarterly*, IX (October, 1934), 174-219.

A series of papers by Coffman, Zook, Haggerty, Russell, Gardner, Waples, Works, Judd, and Schwitalla presenting the new accrediting procedure of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

592. RUSSELL, JOHN DALE, and LAWSON, DOUGLAS E. "Internal Organization of School Divisions: C. Institutions of Higher Learning," *School Organization*, pp. 401-3. Review of Educational Research, Vol. IV, No. 4. Washington: American Educational Research Association of the National Education Association, 1934.

A correlated review of the research that has been produced during the period from June 1, 1931, to July 1, 1934, on certain aspects of college and university administration.

593. SANFORD, DANIEL SAMMIS, JR. *Inter-institutional Agreements in Higher Education*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 627. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1934. Pp. viii+112.

Reports the extent to which inter-institutional agreements have been developed, the circumstances of their formation, and other aspects of the problem of co-operative planning in higher education.

594. SHORES, LOUIS. "The Library Arts College, a Possibility in 1954?" *School and Society*, XLI (January 26, 1935), 110-14.

Advocates a type of instruction based not on lecturing and class recitations but on library reading and individual conferences.

595. SMITH, HENRY LESTER, and NOFFSINGER, FOREST RUBY. *Bibliography of College and University Buildings, Grounds, and Equipment*. Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. X, No. 2. Bloomington, Indiana: Bureau of Co-operative Research, Indiana University School of Education, 1934. Pp. 200.

Lists 2,027 references, classified under thirteen headings with indexes of authors and institutions, and excellent topical cross-references.

596. SWAN, J. N. "Retiring Allowances for Teachers in State Universities," *School and Society*, XL (July 14, 1934), 62-65.  
Summarizes practices in forty-three state universities.
597. THWING, CHARLES F. "Some Qualities of a Good College Trustee," *School and Society*, XL (August 4, 1934), 137-41.  
An interesting discussion based on long years of practical experience in college administration.
598. TURCK, CHARLES J. "Report of the Committee on Methods of Student Recruiting," *Bulletin of the Association of American Colleges*, XXI (March, 1935), 140-52.  
Stresses the need for higher ethical standards in student-recruiting practices.
599. WALLGREN, A. SAMUEL. "The Status of the Work of the Registrar in the Junior Colleges of the United States," *Bulletin of the American Association of Collegiate Registrars*, X (January, 1935), 75-85.  
A statistical survey leads to the conclusion that the junior college "has not sufficiently recognized the importance of the work and office of registrar."
600. WALTERS, RAYMOND. "Statistics of Registration in American Universities and Colleges, 1934," *School and Society*, XL (December 15, 1934), 785-801.  
The annual analysis of enrolments, showing a decided increase in the total attendance at higher institutions.
601. WARD, JESSE L. *The Development of Faculty Personnel Accounting Forms for an Institution of Higher Learning*. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Edwards Bros., Inc., 1934. Pp. x+142.  
Analyzes and evaluates criteria for the construction of faculty-record forms.

## Educational Writings

### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

*The school in a managed society.*—The educational institutions of this country have never been a particularly vital force in the creation of social intelligence. The fruits of education have been, in the main, private and personal rather than public and social. The instructional content of school and college alike has contributed much to personal prestige, to professional and vocational efficiency, but far too little to a critical understanding of the workings of our social arrangements. Educational institutions have been so much concerned with the past, with the cultivation of a harmless and more or less useless antiquarianism, that they have not given adequate attention to the issues of the present or the problems of the future. Why this condition should have arisen is not difficult to understand. For generations the school was under the domination of the theologians. The social teachings of Christianity stressed individual conduct, personal character, and relation of individual to individual, and placed little emphasis on the broader aspects of social policy. In the matter of school control the theologian was finally supplanted by the business man and the psychologist, neither of whom had any great interest in a changing social order. The business leader, dominated by a philosophy of laissez faire, was fearful of change. He was disposed to cultivate in youth a firm belief in unchanging principles of economics and in the immutability of human nature itself. Indeed, it is not too much to say that he was disposed to regard the whole area of human relations as governed by immutable law. In the nature of his function, the psychologist centers his interest in the individual, in mental growth and processes, in the laws of learning, in individual differences, in the development of personality.

Of late, however, not a little has been written about redirecting education in such a way as to make it a more vital force in social direction and control. In a recently published volume of essays<sup>1</sup> Rexford G. Tugwell and a number of his colleagues at Columbia University attempt to define the social objectives of education and to indicate something of the rôle of the social sciences as instruments for the cultivation of social intelligence. In the past, at least during the greater

<sup>1</sup> *Redirecting Education*: Vol. I, The United States. Edited by Rexford G. Tugwell and Leon H. Keyserling. New York: Columbia University Press, 1934. Pp. x+274. \$3.00.



part of their history, our schools, high and low, have had no social objectives because there were no social aims in a society which made no attempt to rationalize or to control its future. That is to say, individualism and laissez faire had their way with the educational institutions. "The schools became places where individuals were trained for competitive lives" (p. 46). But a new social pattern emerges. "Conflict becomes, in this evolving process, co-operation; individualism becomes collectivism; liberty becomes government; self-interest becomes social aspiration" (p. 34). A managed society becomes the only rational choice, and a managed society requires a forthright reconstruction in our schools. In pleading for a managed society, Tugwell, it should be pointed out, does not have in mind Communism, Fascism, or any other particular form of social organization; he has in mind, rather, "experimental social management"—the application of critical analysis to the functioning of social arrangements. The rôle of the school in a managed, self-repairing society is obvious. It will seek to cultivate in the youth a critical social intelligence; it will indoctrinate them with experimentalism; but it will not impose upon them the acceptance of specific forms of social organization or specific formulas for the solution of social problems. In the matter of indoctrination Tugwell takes the sharpest possible issue with Counts. "Anyone who does not believe he has discovered the true and ultimate goal of human aspirations" should avoid Counts's position "as the devil avoids holy water. It is only for the convinced and the assured" (p. 107).

The other essays in the volume deal, in the main, with the teaching of the social sciences in the colleges. It is the consensus of the contributors that economics, history, and political science will have to undergo a thorough reorganization if they are to be made effective instruments for the cultivation of social understanding.

This volume of essays is extremely challenging and stimulating. It is especially commended to school superintendents and principals.

NEWTON EDWARDS

*Alphabetic education: or Schools for the TVA.*—The latest book<sup>1</sup> to propagandize for "a new social order" and the New Deal is, to cite the title-page, by a "sometime professor of education in Vanderbilt University [and] author of *Light from the North*, *Inside Experience*, and *The Social Interpretation of Education*, etc." There are fourteen chapters, a brief "Selected Bibliography," and an index of two and a half pages.

The author purports to describe what is happening in the Tennessee Valley and to reveal the "cultural sterility" of modern technology and "of current academic education." He presents a program of education for Norris, "the First City of the New Social Order." The book closes with a revelation of

<sup>1</sup> Joseph K. Hart, *Education for an Age of Power: The TVA Poses a Problem*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1935. Pp. x+246. \$2.50.

"Frontiers beyond Power." The final sentence declares, "It is judgment day, and the first trumpet sound is heard—in the Tennessee Valley!" (P. 239.)

Like the editorials in rural weeklies, the writing is done in the first person plural. In the first paragraph, of only four lines, the pronoun "we" occurs six times; in the second paragraph, of twenty lines, "we" occurs fifteen times. Other first-person pronouns, such as "our," "ours," and "us," are sprinkled liberally throughout the volume. The author does not say for whom he is speaking.

The book abounds in italicized terms and statements, most of which lack realistic counterparts. "*America must create a soul*" (p. 3); "*all we have is the product of past changes*" (p. 8); "*implementation of will is the clue to change*" (p. 12); "*we have no logic of change*" (p. 30); "we can make for ourselves a world closer to our heart's desires if we will and if we learn how to *implement our wills*" (p. 31); "*spiritual correlates*" (p. 51); "*an idea must be implemented*" (p. 64); "*bare bones of industrialism*" (p. 89); "*pattern of mental disintegration*" (p. 181); "*national pool of power*" (p. 225); "*change is more permanent than permanence*" (p. 238). All these expressions seem to be literary counterfeits.

The reviewer infers that Mr. Hart looks on "culture" as the desired end of the new education. He asks, "Are you going to fulfil the promises . . . in social, cultural, spiritual lines?" (P. 124.) Again, he says that educating people how to live "is the surest promise of a *genuine future culture*" (pp. 152-53). The women of the new city of Norris may "want to use some . . . leisure in weaving baskets or dancing to old folk music," and these pursuits are cited as examples of "a cultured leisure" (p. 154). The *means* are experiences, for "education in Norris is to be made of *experiences*" (p. 163) and "*what goes on in the experience of the one being educated*" (p. 168). "Real education" is defined as "enrichment of the child's own experience by processes that are integral with that experience" (p. 169).

The educational resources to be used in Norris are, "first, . . . the earth itself," though Mr. Hart realizes that "one who plays with the earth must get his fingers and his clothing *soiled*" (p. 161). "A second resource is . . . modern technology. . . . material for real experiences that can range all the way from childish wonder at the waters pouring over the dam . . . to that adult understanding which can see the whole Valley blossoming as the rose" (p. 162). "Between these two termini . . . lie . . . growth, in respect for *things*, and appreciation of *processes*, and in inventions" (p. 162). "A third resource . . . is the wide range of social and community activities" (p. 163).

The educational activities in the schools will be play and work, but "reading, writing, and arithmetic will always be important . . . as mental tools. All other 'studies'—the literatures, languages, sciences, arts, philosophies—will be there, of course, but again as raw materials" (p. 167). Although the reader is told that there are to be "no bookish verbalisms and definitions" (p. 162), the author admits that "habits, vocabularies, information, and the memorization

of logically organized subject matters may all be important, and they probably have *some place* in a real education" (p. 171). He admits, too, that the "scientific" . . . method . . . may creep into the educational procedures in Norris" (p. 170). Just what there is in this program that is "not of the past nor of the present" is hard to see. However, the picture of scientific method "creeping" into the plan is entrancing.

One should keep in mind that Mr. Hart is a few jumps ahead of the ordinary soapbox educator, for this is education *in* a new social order, not merely *for* it. "There was," he says "much talk of a 'new social order,' with . . . its first center of living in the new city of Norris." Although "this talk . . . has been soft-pedaled a bit, . . . the hopes are still with some of us" (p. 125). Socially and economically, it appears that the new order will be like primitive society, in which the people were "peaceful, co-operative." Says Mr. Hart, "There were no 'individuals' in the primitive world, nothing but *groups*" (p. 128). In the new society everything modern "will have to go" because they "violate all the *primitive group feelings of men*" (p. 128). There will be religion, but not the religions of today, which are described as "anti-natural" (p. 129). The reviewer cannot call these proposals progressive; they are reactionary.

As a book that looks to the future, this work contains a surprising number of finalities, often accompanied by threats. There is "even some talk of social and political revolutions," which, apparently to Mr. Hart's displeasure, "we discount. . . . But forces are gathering which are almost compelling us to make some sort of deliberate decision about the future" (p. 59). What these forces are he does not say.

Mr. Hart finds that there is only one philosophical movement and one inclusive way out, and its adoption will save us from the nasty task of picking up the pieces "when the inevitable explosion comes" (p. 117). The "battle" will be fought out in industries "by means of strikes and lockouts" and by "drives on public opinion" with "expensive propaganda" (p. 122).

The author alludes many times to what will happen if "we do not do this" or "we do not do that," though, "to be sure, all this is 'collectivist' talk" (p. 225). In his discussion of the political situation Mr. Hart quotes two men, Strachey and Sokolsky: the first to the effect that "President Roosevelt grows politically stronger . . . by measures profoundly injurious to the capitalist system"; the second to the effect that "the NIRA . . . attempts to introduce communistic measures into a capitalistic structure," and the . . . outcome must be Fascism—and Fascism is confusion" (p. 226). The rationality of these statements Hart leaves unquestioned.

The author has introduced and invented numerous terms which belong to the meaningless patter of educational jargon, for example, the offensive plural "leaderships" (p. ix); "implementation" (p. 12); "frame of reference" (p. 19); "gospelism" (p. 24); "understandings" (p. 25); "implement our wills" (p. 31);

"areas" of interest, etc. (p. 46); "sciencism" (p. 49); "perdurable" (p. 96); and, doubtless the choicest of the lot, "nostalgic obscurantism" (p. 99). Words like "impact," "sterile," "culture," "nostalgic," and "drift" are grossly over-exploited.

The author is not altogether consistent. On page 27 he praises "actual living" and "real experiences"; on page 36 he refers sarcastically to the pioneer because "action" was for him a more convenient mode of expression [sic] than was *critical thinking*. He naively reveals the brand of "democracy" at work in the Tennessee Valley by showing how the settlers have been dispossessed of their lands, but he says, "The Valley Authority does not intend to impose culture upon the people, *ad hoc*" (p. 156). However, he declares, "It must follow up its own explicit acts and give social direction" (p. 156) to a policy which was fixed the day the Authority was established. It is gratifying to know that "the Authority does not intend to try to make the people of the Valley over, out of hand" (p. 157). He expresses contempt for "our old, stubborn, stupid, 'rugged' individualism—that made America great and free" but lauds that "intelligent, critical, and social individualism, which is the true meaning of democracy" (p. 121). Such are the miracles of the New Deal in education.

The author is now and then a little extravagant in his generalizations. "Our schools," he says, "have largely broken down. . . . Thousands . . . have been closed." However, "We have money for those things we feel should be done" (p. 102). He thinks that "it is a delusion of the schools that they are now furnishing [the] leaders," for the "brain trusters are not school men" and "there is scarcely a 'brain truster' who could get another position in one of our conventional colleges" (p. 122). The author of *The Challenge to Liberty* is called a "conservative" and is referred to as "the late President Hoover."

Properly speaking, Hart's book should be judged as political propaganda and not as a treatise in education. By and large, as the politicians say, the work is nothing more than a feeble and belated hallelujah for the New Deal. It lacks both originality and depth. The style, when not admonitory, is sentimental. The book reveals an astonishing lack of understanding of science and of scientific education. It fails to achieve a modicum of its avowed purpose. It is as prosaic and uninspiring as the name of the New City of Light: Norris, of blessed anticipation; Norris, zenith city of the untainted valley of the Clinch; Norris, the arcanum of the collectivist select.

Mr. Hart quotes approvingly two lines from Matthew Arnold's "Stanzas from the Grande Chartreuse." How appropriate it would have been for him to have read further and to have cited these lines:

For the world cries your faith is now  
But a dead time's exploded dream; . . .  
For what availed it, all the noise  
And outcry of the former men?

At the risk of being called a romantic agrarian, when face to face with the ill-advised and feverish propaganda of collectivism, one cannot but join Schoolmaster Arnold again in his regret for—

... days when wits were fresh and clear . . .  
Before this strange disease of modern life,  
With its sick hurry, its divided aims,  
Its heads o'ertaxed . . .

JOHN C. ALMACK

STANFORD UNIVERSITY

*Youth and the movies.*—Since educators in general feel, with varying intensity, that motion pictures exert a definite educational influence on youth, partly in harmony and partly at cross-purposes with the aims of the school, they are much interested in objective studies which attempt to determine the extent of that influence and to evaluate its character. Many educators have come in contact with at least some of the Payne Fund Studies of Motion Pictures and Youth, made under the chairmanship of W. W. Charters, and will welcome the appearance of another volume of the series in which two further studies are reported.<sup>1</sup>

In carrying forward his aim for the first study, "to discover the content of motion pictures" (p. ix), the author devised a method of analyzing motion pictures and applied it to fifteen hundred films with release dates distributed equally over the years 1920, 1925, and 1930. On the basis of short written accounts the films were classified according to major themes. During the years 1929-31, 115 films were viewed at theaters and reports made on a prepared schedule. A more intensive analysis was made of 40 of the 115 films; observers familiarized themselves with the content of a film before attending the theater, took notes at the theater, and then prepared a running narrative of the film.

In the presentation of the results of the study chapters are devoted to the general themes of the fifteen hundred films; their locales and settings; characters; clothing worn by leading characters; circumstances of meeting and love-making; sex, marriage, and romantic love; crime; vulgarity; recreations and use of liquor and tobacco; and goals sought by the leading characters. A chapter is also devoted to newsreels, and another gives a summary and general interpretations.

The aim of the second study "was to discover the frequency of attendance of school children at commercial motion pictures in relation to age, sex, companions, time of day, day of attendance, and program offerings most frequently viewed" (p. 1). The study was made by a systematic checking of children's attendance at fifteen theaters in Columbus, Ohio, and by the use of inquiry blanks giving attendance data for approximately fifty-five thousand children

<sup>1</sup> Edgar Dale, *The Content of Motion Pictures*, pp. xvi+234. Combined with *Children's Attendance at Motion Pictures*, pp. x+82. Payne Fund Studies of Motion Pictures and Youth. New York: Macmillan Co., 1935. \$2.50.

from kindergarten through Grade XII, distributed in fifty communities in Ohio and several communities in one other state.

In the report of this study preliminary chapters are devoted to the findings of the study, "The Motion-Picture Problem," and the techniques of investigation. Chapters are then given to "Children's Companions at the Movies," frequency with which children attend the motion pictures, the time of day and the days of week when they attend, and the age composition of the motion-picture audience. A final chapter estimates the size and the composition of the national motion-picture audience, the data of the study being used as a basis for estimation.

In both studies the data are clearly set forth in tabular and graphic form, and the discussion is in simple language which should offer no difficulty to laymen. Persons interested in the social and cultural influences of the motion picture will be interested in objective data which show how often children attend the pictures, how much more often boys attend than girls, how seldom children and youth attend with their parents, how early in life the patterns of motion-picture attendance are established, how much attention is given in the pictures to crime and violence and to goals which do not lie within the normal lives of most of the spectators, how much emphasis is placed on money and on clothes and settings which would require financial outlays quite beyond the resources of most members of the audience, and many other significant facts. The author sets forth possible arguments in defense of motion pictures and attendance at the films as they were at the time of the study, and he gives reasons why certain changes should be made for the general social welfare. He comments on the problem of the production of motion pictures for maximum financial profit for the producers versus the production of pictures for the maximum social enrichment of patrons.

The report may perhaps be criticized on the ground of repetition. When reading discourse which repeats in sentence form data and facts that are apparent from tabular or graphic presentations, the reader may feel that he is marking time instead of moving forward. Both tabular and graphic presentation might have been somewhat less extensively used. In spite of this criticism, however, the book is decidedly valuable for educators, sociologists, and others interested in the school and in general public and social welfare.

HAROLD H. PUNKE

GEORGIA STATE WOMANS COLLEGE  
VALDOSTA, GEORGIA

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*The research point of view in elementary educational psychology.*—New textbooks for use in beginning courses in the field of psychology for teachers continue to exhibit numerous diverse methods of attack. Books published during the last few years have employed, for example, the practical, the genetic, the Gestalt, the social, and the adjustment approaches to the subject. A recent pub-

lication in this field' places the emphasis on the research point of view. The content is largely restricted to descriptions of various types of tests as instruments of research, summarizations of numerous particular research studies, and statements of generalizations which may be based on such investigations. Furthermore, the conception of research seems to be limited to studies which yield quantitative results.

The discussion throughout the book is organized about three general problems: measurement, individual differences, and learning. The chapters devoted to the first problem deal with the general methods and principles of measurement; tests of aptitude, intelligence, and achievement; and measurement in the realms of personality traits and aesthetics. The treatment of the second problem is concerned with the nature, development, and causes of individual differences; three special groups of pupils, namely, the gifted, the subnormal, and the maladjusted; and the differentiation of instruction. The chapters devoted to the last problem discuss the general nature of learning and memory, the conditions affecting their efficiency, and the transfer of training.

The discussion of the problem of measurement occupies approximately half the book. This problem must, of course, be included in any treatment which assumes the research point of view. On the other hand, such topics as types of learning, learning in the school subjects, mental growth, mental hygiene, and personality development receive little or no attention. Practically all phases of the field of measurement are given consideration, but the selection of topics from educational psychology is incomplete. The volume represents, therefore, a decided shift in the selection of the content usually included in the elementary course in the latter field.

The chief limitation of the book, in the opinion of the reviewer, arises out of the fact that the authors have adhered so closely to the research point of view. It does not appear that an adequate textbook in educational psychology can as yet be written which confines itself to knowledge having its basis in research studies, particularly when such studies are limited to those bearing quantitative results. There are so many important problems to which research at the present time offers either no answers at all or only unsatisfactory and incomplete answers that serious gaps are left in the teacher's knowledge of psychology if it is confined to this one avenue of approach, important though that avenue may be.

The authors of the volume under discussion have rendered a real service, however, in performing their task. The book should be valuable to those who desire an introduction to the research point of view in education and to those who wish to familiarize themselves with the results and conclusions of investigations of the problems treated. Due emphasis is placed by the authors on the character and the importance of the scientific method of procedure in solving

<sup>1</sup> Alvin C. Eurich and Herbert A. Carroll, *Educational Psychology*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1935. Pp. viii+436. \$2.24.



the problems of education, and a large number of research studies are presented, both to illustrate the application of research techniques and to build a factual basis for thinking about the problems of educational psychology. If properly used and supplemented, the book should prove to be a valuable instrument for inculcating in prospective teachers something of a scientific attitude toward the problems which they must face.

EDWARD F. POTTHOFF

UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

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*A method of teaching junior high school English.*—A great deal of discussion is heard regarding the teaching of English, and this method and that is advocated. Yet, when students enter college, they are still given a preliminary test in English and, failing to meet a certain standard, are required to take a course without credit. It is refreshing, therefore, to read of the efforts of teachers who are meeting with success in English instruction.

A recent book outlines a method of teaching junior high school English.<sup>1</sup> The author stipulates that the book is not intended to outline a course of study. "It aims rather to convey the spirit of creative teaching, and to suggest ways in which living English may contribute to the work of every department of the junior high school." While the book is successful in conveying the spirit of creative teaching, only a few suggestions relate to the correlation of English with other departments. In this field a great deal still needs to be done.

The author's plea throughout is for use of methods that will contribute to the *natural* growth of the child. The plans which she outlines, if undertaken by teachers of superior endowment, will undoubtedly bring results. Her methods partake of those more readily applied to children in a private or laboratory school. Public-school teachers in the average school will likely find difficulty in applying all the methods, but they will find, in addition to suggestions for new projects, a wealth of material illustrating pupils' work, of which they may well avail themselves. The author gives many examples of poetry and prose written by her pupils and by pupils of other schools in the same stage of progress. There is also a wealth of suggestive exercises that the teacher of English will find helpful. The description in full of the experiences of one who has evidently met with success in a field is an incentive to the progress of others in the same field.

The book is divided into thirteen chapters. The first discusses "New Trends in Education," and the next eleven describe methods used by the author in dealing with the following types of English-teaching: oral composition, the paragraph, growth in writing, letter-writing, book reports, the mechanics of writing, the new grammar, tests, the comprehensive project, plays, creative writing. The final chapter gives illustrations of creative writing by junior high school pupils.

<sup>1</sup> Emma Glaser, *On the Teaching of Junior High School English*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1935. Pp. 308. \$2.00.

Knowledge is not a guaranty of correct speech, says the author. Her plea is rather that correct forms of expression be made *automatic*. Discussing the comprehensive project, she says: "Because a unit of work covering a long period is difficult to engineer and because failure is not only barren of results but destructive to general progress, it is well to consider the hazards together with the advantages of the plan" (p. 196). This warning is timely, for too many teachers have entered on a long project without considering its hazards. In the chapter on tests brief descriptions are given of a number of standardized tests which will give the teacher knowledge of the abilities of her pupils in various aspects of composition.

Probably no teacher of English will feel the need of attempting all the exercises and suggestions offered for a particular class. The book constitutes a valuable reference, however, to those interested in the teaching of English by other than the cut and dried method.

EDWIN S. LIDE

SULLIVAN HIGH SCHOOL, CHICAGO

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*Theory evolves into practice in the program of school sports.*—Almost as much energy has been spent by theorists in upholding the various policies and philosophies in the field known as physical education as has been given to the activities themselves. Objectives, content, technique, and even the titles used to designate courses in this field have often been subjects of heated argument. Much of the disputed territory has been reviewed and many controversial points have been covered in a recent volume<sup>1</sup> which devotes an entire chapter to proving the author's thesis that there is not and cannot be such a thing as instruction in *physical education*.

While the author's viewpoints are in accord with modern thought, they are not entirely new. The book is the outgrowth of twelve years' experience in teaching both professional and applied courses in the department of physical education at the University of Illinois. It shows how theories developed in these professional courses may be translated into practical curriculums in schools. It is intended to serve both as a textbook for university courses in teacher training and as a source book for the guidance of committees engaged in revising and planning instructional units in physical education.

The first third of the book reviews and evaluates philosophies, theories, and policies which have been advanced in both the general field of education and in the specific field which the author designates as "sports education." The remaining pages deal with problems of organizing and administering courses of study. Two chapters are devoted to objectives to be attained. One of these discusses "conduct," or ultimate objectives; the other, "control," or immediate objectives. The author's concept of objectives includes only such matters as pertain to the actual steps of the learning and performance of a sport. He leaves

<sup>1</sup> Seward C. Staley, *The Curriculum in Sports: Physical Education*. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1935. Pp. 374. \$2.50.

out much of the theory of remote objectives which often obscures the work of less practical writers. Other topics include illustrative learning activities involved in mastering typical sports, class regulations and plans for group instruction, grading and marking achievement in sports, and an outline of the sports curriculum. A generous bibliography of classified reference material is also appended.

The author's plan of curriculum procedure is that of Walter S. Monroe, of the University of Illinois. It consists in (1) making a detailed analysis of ultimate objectives to be attained for socially efficient conduct in a given sport or activity; (2) determining the controls of conduct, that is, the skills, habits, ideals, attitudes, conditions, etc., which are involved in the performance of each sport; and (3) determining the learning activities necessary to acquire skill in such performance. Also included in the third step is the listing of physical materials and apparatus required in the performance of the learning activities.

Teachers of physical education in secondary schools will find in this book authoritative support for their efforts to modernize and improve their departments of instruction. Both the style and the viewpoints presented are sufficiently challenging to assure widespread and critical reading. Partisans of the older policies in physical education will clash with the behavioristic theories of the author. Experienced teachers and coaches may question the dogmatic standards set up for pupils to attain, and many readers will hesitate to accept the author's extreme emphasis on the significance of a title. On all these points, however, Staley makes a convincing case for his particular views. Moreover, his repeated emphasis on the desirability of teaching in school socially accepted standards of sportsmanship and hygienically approved sports will win both professional and lay approval of this comprehensive volume on curriculum.

E. E. MORLEY

HEIGHTS HIGH SCHOOL, CLEVELAND HEIGHTS, OHIO

*Modern chemistry for high-school pupils.*—The book under review<sup>1</sup> represents an attempt to make high-school chemistry interesting and practical to young people and at the same time to meet the requirements of the Division of Chemical Education of the American Chemical Society, the College Entrance Examination Board, and the New York State Regents. The author states definitely that the latter objective is attained by the book. He attempts to accomplish the first-mentioned purpose by employing devices which, according to the Preface of the book, he seems to regard as somewhat revolutionary. However, none of these could be called pedagogically innovational or new to first courses in chemistry.

The devices are pictures; graded problems; suggestions for further reading; and quotations from, and biographical material about, famous scientists. It should be said, however, that the author makes good use of these instructional aids. The problems are numerous and varied, although they are, for the most part, still the same old problems. The quotations are apt, although their force

<sup>1</sup> Bernard Jaffe, *New World of Chemistry*. Newark, New Jersey: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1935. Pp. xii+566+xxx. \$1.80.

as a motivation factor remains to be proved. The biographical material is not different, in the main, from that found in other similar books. In his collection of illustrations the author has done very well, indeed. He has gone far and wide in search of new and appropriate illustrations, and his quest has been eminently successful. The reviewer has not seen a better illustrated textbook in chemistry anywhere.

In choice and presentation of subject matter the book is rather orthodox. The chapter headings as well as the material covered are similar to those found in other well-known works in this field. As far as the reviewer is competent to judge and as far as may be expected in view of our rapidly changing concepts of the nature and properties of matter, the facts presented are technically accurate. Radioactivity receives a briefer treatment than usual and, instead of being given the customary place in the last chapter, is introduced earlier as part of the chapter on atomic structure. Formulas and equations are used freely in the early chapters and explained later. This procedure may occasion some difficulty to beginners.

On the whole, the book marks no decided break with traditional treatment of the subject at this level, either in organization or content. It is a good book of much the same type as others that have been published during the past decade. The author has made a consistent effort to present his material in an interesting manner and to bring out those phases of the subject that should appeal to the high-school pupil.

VICTOR H. NOLL

RHODE ISLAND STATE COLLEGE  
KINGSTON, RHODE ISLAND

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### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

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- ALEXANDER, CARTER. *How To Locate Educational Information and Data: A Text and Reference Book*, pp. xxvi+272; *Alexander Library Exercises*, pp. 102. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1935.
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AMES, MAURICE U., and JAFFE, BERNARD. *Laboratory and Workbook Units in Chemistry.* Consumable edition, pp. xii+228, \$0.84; nonconsumable edition, pp. xiv+240, \$1.08. Newark, New Jersey: Silver, Burdett & Co., 1935.

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MASON, BERNARD S., and MITCHELL, ELMER D. *Active Games and Contests.* New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., Inc., 1935. Pp. viii+600. \$3.00.

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- Five Hundred Books for College Men and Women.* Selected and arranged by Clarence DeWitt Thorpe, Carlton F. Wells, and Theodore Hornberger. Ann Arbor, Michigan: George Wahr, 1935. Pp. 30. \$0.25.
- Geographic Education in Elementary and Junior High Schools:* Suggestions for Developing Courses of Study in Geography. Pennsylvania Curriculum Studies. Bulletin No. 91. Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: State Department of Public Instruction, 1935. Pp. 184.
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- Civilian Conservation Corps Vocational Series—Outlines of Instruction for Educational Advisers and Instructors in Civilian Conservation Corps Camps: No. 2, *Automobile Repairing*, pp. x+64; No. 3, *Automotive Electricity*, pp. xii+80; No. 5, *Concrete Construction*, pp. x+88; No. 6, *Cooking*, pp. xii+66; No. 10, *Elementary Masonry and Bricklaying*, pp. x+62; No. 13, *Radio Servicing*, pp. xii+66; No. 15, *Plane Surveying*, pp. x+60.
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